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Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools

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TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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THIRD EDITION

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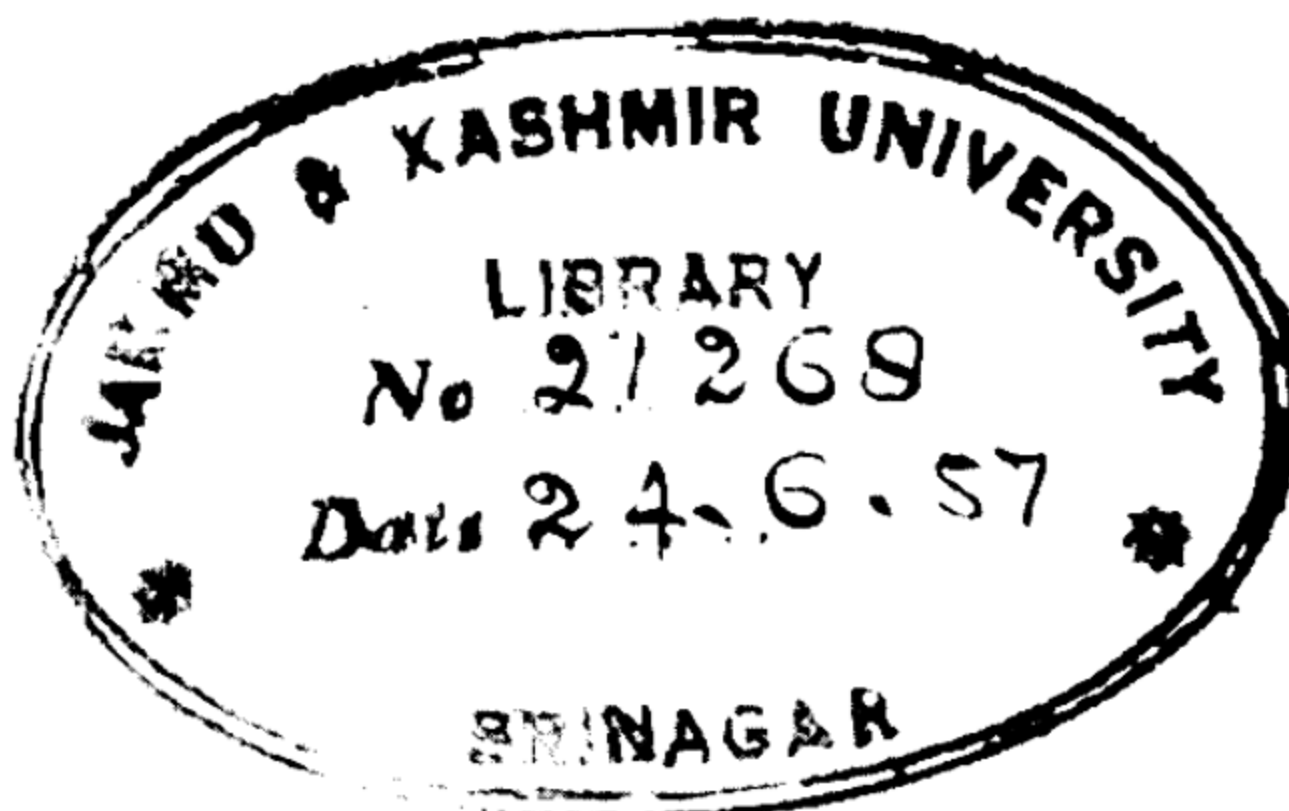
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PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

In writing each edition of this book the authors have been motivated by the desire that they might be of some help to those who are or who may become teachers of the social studies. The wide acceptance of the first two editions indicates that some measure of success has attended their endeavors. The words of encouragement of students and teachers have been gratifying and point to the fact that the book has been of practical value.

Since the second edition appeared, many changes have taken place in world conditions and much thought has been given to the teaching of the social studies in such a changing world. Committees have met and are still meeting to discuss aims and objectives of education. Curriculum revision is a pressing issue on local, state, and national levels. Teaching method remains a primary topic of discussion with the importance of the pupil receiving more and more emphasis. The atomic age has raised many questions concerning the training for citizenship to meet the needs of a perplexed world.

Amid the experimentation and discussions of committees and commissions the average teacher and those preparing to teach are apt to feel lost. It seems, therefore, that another revision is in order to bring the work up to date. It is the hope of the authors that the revision will be of greater service in helping individuals to evaluate the trends of the day and be an aid in giving the necessary background for better work in guiding youth into a higher type of citizenship through the use of the social studies. Some of the experimentation of the day will pass away; some will have permanent value. We hope this volume will help the teacher prove that which is good.

In revising the volume, all of the chapters have been brought up to date. Many of the chapters have been expanded in order to include the developments of the past decade. Much has been rewritten in harmony with present-day trends.

The authors again wish to use this means to thank all those who in any way helped in the revision.

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PHILADELPHIA, PA.
February, 1952

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PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

During recent decades many significant changes have taken place in educational thought and practice. Not only have the ideas been modified and broadened concerning the materials of instruction and the methods of presenting such materials in the schools, but the very purposes of education have undergone radical modifications. It has been the aim of the authors of this book to present an account of the changes that have taken place in teaching the social studies in the secondary schools of our country, together with a description and an evaluation of educational theories and classroom practices in the teaching of these subjects at the present time.

A little more than a century ago history was introduced into the curriculum of the secondary schools of the United States. It did not take many decades for this subject to establish itself. A form of civics and a type of economics were introduced about the same time. Both these subjects, however, met with greater difficulties than history in gaining general acceptance. Today a variety of subjects is included in the social-studies curriculum. Each presents problems as to its purpose, materials, and methods of presentation. It is essential that prospective teachers, as well as teachers in service, if they are to achieve the greatest success in their work, have a knowledge of the changes that have taken place in the teaching of their subjects and also an understanding of current theories, issues, and actual practices involved in teaching the social studies.

A number of the problems connected with teaching the social studies are controversial. In treating such problems the authors have tried to present impartially all the important ideas and views in each case and they have sought a sane point of view throughout. Recognition is also given to the best elements in recently advocated innovations, which have swept many educators off their feet because of a too-eager search for panaceas to cure all our educational ills.

The part that the school must play in building a new social order is receiving much attention at present. Social and civic training, however, remains in a very unsatisfactory condition. Our schools are not yet very efficient in producing citizens who will take their places in a democratic society in an effective manner. The problem of social and civic training and plans for such a program are discussed in this volume.

Many committees have spent much time and thought considering the

problems of society, especially those concerned with the education of the young. Ideas and recommendations from the reports of committees, both past and present, that have a bearing on the teaching of the social studies in secondary schools are summarized and their influence is noted. Especially important at the present time is the report made by the President's Research Committee on Recent Social Trends in the United States, and also the much controverted recent report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association.

Since this work is intended primarily as a textbook in training prospective teachers of the social studies, it has been written in a simple style. The first essential of a textbook should be clearness. To aid the student, a summary of the important points in each chapter is presented at the close of the chapter. Review questions are also provided to stimulate thought on the chief points of each chapter. For each major topic a list of references, both books and periodical articles, has been carefully selected for students who may desire to pursue further the investigation of particular phases of the subject.

While this volume is chiefly intended for use in classes in teacher-training institutions, it is hoped that it will be useful to teachers in service who, through press of duties, find it difficult to keep informed on the latest trends and views on the teaching of the social studies. To others, also, who are interested in the part the social studies should play in the training of citizens, this book may prove suggestive and helpful.

The authors desire to express their thanks to all those who have aided in the preparation of this volume. They are especially grateful to Professor Albert E. McKinley for his kindly interest and constructive suggestions. They also appreciate the valuable and constructive criticisms of those who have read parts of the manuscript, including Professor LeRoy A. King, Dr. Wren J. Grinstead, and Dr. James A. Mulhern, of the University of Pennsylvania. To many others who have assisted in various ways, the authors take this opportunity of expressing their appreciation.

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PHILADELPHIA, PA.
May, 1935

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CHAPTER I

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The Organization of Knowledge

Various classifications of human knowledge exist. A convenient arrangement divides knowledge into the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. The natural sciences include the physical sciences, which deal with the phenomena of the universe such as physics, chemistry, geology, and astronomy, and the biological sciences such as biology, zoology, and botany. The social sciences are those subjects that relate to the origin, organization, and development of human society, especially to man in his association with other men. The humanities are those branches of knowledge which tend to humanize man; they originated in the changes in art, literature, and thought which took place in western Europe at the close of the Middle Ages and include the ancient classics, belles-lettres, and all influences that seek the freedom of the human mind.

The term "humanities" is a very flexible one, for most studies can provide aesthetic and spiritual values as distinguished from informational or utilitarian values. The imprint of humanism from the Renaissance to the nineteenth century made the term "humanities" almost synonymous with the curricula of leading European schools and universities. Since the word has such a broad and indefinite meaning, there is a trend toward classifying humanism within the field of the social sciences. Therefore the classification used in this volume will be: the natural sciences, which deal directly with natural objects; and the social sciences, which treat all the activities and attainments of man.

The natural sciences contribute greatly to the social sciences. For example, chemistry has contributed much to the elimination of disease and, therefore, to the well-being of man; the study of genetics, a branch of biology, has increased our knowledge of heredity and variation, which may aid in improving social conditions; and physics and related sciences have discovered atomic energy, which may be used for man's benefit or for his ruin. However, the two fields of knowledge—the natural sciences and the social sciences—may be regarded as distinct. We know the natural world because we can see, feel, and handle the material things about

us. We comprehend society in its various phases and aspects because we are intelligent and social beings.

The social sciences differ in many fundamental respects from the natural sciences. The amount and complexity of knowledge and thought in the social sciences are vastly greater than in the natural sciences. The methods used and the conclusions reached by scientists in the two fields are necessarily different in degree as well as in kind. The dividing line between the two vast fields of knowledge is not clear-cut and is often controversial.¹ Our interest lies in the social sciences, which are bodies of organized knowledge and thought about human affairs.

The controversial question as to whether the social sciences are really sciences—in the same sense as the natural sciences—depends upon one's definition of science. If the word is defined merely as "a department of systematized knowledge," there is no distinction. However, if science is defined as "a branch of study concerned with the observation and classification of facts, especially with the establishment of verifiable general laws, chiefly by induction and hypothesis," there are differences in the two fields of knowledge, particularly in regard to the methods used. The study of the behavior of the material world is quite different from the study of man's activities because, in the study of man, his motives and values have to be taken into account. Then, too, the conclusions of the social scientist cannot be verified by repeated experiment, as is the case with the natural scientist. However, the aim of all science is to discover what is true as far as it is possible to do so, and this task is much more difficult in the social sciences.

Man's progress in the natural sciences has been amazing, bringing swift changes in transportation, invention, manufacturing, and other fields. In the social sciences, however, he has not made such advances. Although man has built a great material civilization, he has not been able to apply his reason to solve the problems of a complex industrial age. He has succeeded in measuring the light years of space, in splitting the atom, and in increasing the material comforts of life, but he has found it difficult to bring social systems under control and, through conflict and war, appears to be blindly heading toward the destruction of his achievements. Only through the rapid development of the social sciences can he hope to find solutions to his dilemma. Some progress has been made and without doubt, through the application of reason and thought, the social scientist will be able to extend the boundaries of knowledge in his field and may devise methods that will end the lag in social progress.

¹ For an excellent discussion of the contrast between the natural and the social sciences, see C. A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies (New York, 1934), pp. 2 ff.

The immaturity of the social sciences will have to be overcome if mankind is to survive.

The terms "social sciences" and "social studies" are used interchangeably in regard to the social subjects taught in the secondary school. The Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association states that

the social sciences, more than any other division of the school curriculum, are concerned immediately with the life, the institutions, the thought, the aspirations and the far-reaching policies of the nation in its world setting. . . . The social sciences take as their province the entire range of human history, from the earliest times down to the latest moment, and the widest reaches of contemporary society, from the life and customs of the most remote peoples to the social practices and cultural possessions of the immediate neighborhood. The social sciences thus embrace the traditional disciplines which are concerned directly with man and society.²

The life and activities of man in society provide the subject matter for the various social sciences, which have been organized into such subjects as history, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, jurisprudence, and philosophy.

The term "social studies" has come into general use. It received official sanction in the report of the Committee on the Social Studies of the National Education Association's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1916. The Committee defined the social studies as "those [studies] whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups." In this meaning of the term, the social studies are adapted from the social sciences in order to play a part—and a very important one—in achieving the purpose or objective of education.

The subjects known as the social studies in the primary and secondary schools function in a different manner from the social sciences taught in the colleges. The point of view of the specialist or the scientist is that of the search for truth and the knowledge of facts. In the colleges the teaching of knowledge in the different fields is largely an end in itself. The situation is entirely different in the public schools. The search for knowledge, together with its conservation and distribution, is not the chief aim. Instead, the most prominent of the objectives in the secondary school is the training of pupils for effective citizenship. The materials of the social studies provide the basis for making the world of today intelligible to the pupils, for training them in certain skills and habits, and for inculcating attitudes and ideals that will enable boys and girls to

² American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations* (New York, 1934), pp. 1, 6.

take their places as efficient and effective members of a democratic society. The public schools have an important part to play in our mechanical and industrial civilization which has democracy for its ideal.

The field of the social studies consists of a number of subjects. The program has evolved from a meager course in history to the varied offerings of today. A knowledge of the origin, development, and subject matter of the social studies and an idea of the introduction and acceptance of each into the curriculum of the secondary school are essential in order to provide a background for understanding present trends in teaching these subjects.

History

History is the oldest of the social sciences. Its origin can be found in the myths and traditions of early primitive peoples, handed down from generation to generation. From the days when Greece flourished and made her contributions to civilization, the term "history" has been used. The Greek word *ιστορία* meant inquiry or, more specifically, knowledge through inquiry. Although historical tradition goes back into antiquity, the Greeks were the first writers of history in the accepted sense of the term. In its original meaning, the term "history" was applied to any kind of knowledge; then it was narrowed to include a knowledge of human affairs as distinguished from natural science; and finally it was applied to a sequence of events. Since the term is used today in several different ways, confusion of thought will result if these meanings are not clearly defined: (1) History is that branch of knowledge which has for its object the ascertaining, recording, and explaining of facts and events of the past. (2) History is a systematic written account or narrative of facts and events of the past, which may vary in form from the simplest annals to the most complex treatise. (3) The word "history" is also employed to designate the sum total of the events and occurrences of the past, distinguishing between all the events of the past and the little knowledge that we have about it, which is chiefly obtained from records.

Since the historian chooses his facts from a large amount of material and arranges them according to some plan of organization and interpretation, there is much opportunity for the subjective conceptions of the writer to distort the narrative to a greater or lesser extent. History has not often been written objectively, for the aims and ideas of the writers have colored their work. Throughout the centuries, history has been written from the storytelling, the political, the religious, the moral, the literary, the dramatic, the patriotic, the heroic, and the economic points of view. The storytelling ideal of Herodotus, the didactic ideal of Thucydides, the dramatic ideal of Froude, the heroic ideal of Carlyle, the

patriotic ideal of Green, and the combined literary and political ideals of Macaulay are only a few examples that testify to the various viewpoints from which history has been written. The most recent concept of the historian is the scientific ideal. From a vast amount of facts, the writer of history can find those which fit his ideal and can arrange them in accord with his beliefs and preconceptions.

The question as to whether history is an art or a science is still debatable. In the works of Herodotus and many of his successors, history appears to be related to the art of literature rather than to science. In the hands of Thucydides, its spirit to some degree became scientific. Although many historians of the past have tried to be scientific in their methods, that is, have patiently attempted to secure accurate facts, it was not until after the rise of modern science and decidedly within the last century that historians have set up the scientific ideal. According to this ideal, the historian applies the methods in use in the physical sciences, which include the gathering of data, the comparison of forms or facts, and the testing and verification of hypotheses. All the material available is studied objectively—without bias or other emotion—and after all evidence is gathered and sifted, the story is narrated in an accurate manner and in a clear, vivid style. The controversy is still going on between those who believe that the social sciences should follow the principles of the scientific method developed by the physical sciences and those who believe that the social sciences should develop independent methods of their own because the subject matter differs so greatly from that of the natural sciences.

Some historians have even suggested that natural laws might be discovered to explain the processes of history, just as natural laws have been discovered that can be applied to recurring phenomena in the physical world. They point, for example, to the rise and fall of great nations: Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, Egypt, Rome, and others. Each in turn commanded world power for a period and then decayed. Is there a law of impermanence or mutability operating in human society so that disintegration begins when a certain point is reached? Can a comparison be made with the field of biology, which teaches that when an organism becomes too highly specialized and unsuited to its environment, it dies? Do great nations decay in a like manner because they cannot change with times and conditions? Some historians have suggested such an analogy.³ If human affairs and events are subject to laws that can be discovered, such laws will be of greater value to man than even physical or biological laws; for not until they are found can the past become a guide for the present and the future. The idea of law in history is not new.

³ E. P. CHEYNEY, *Law in History and Other Essays* (New York, 1927), pp. 13–14.

It may be found in an elementary form in ancient Egyptian writings and can be traced in the thought of the past two thousand years. About the middle of the nineteenth century, under the influence of the scientific movement, many historians began to apply the scientific method to history, expecting and hoping that "laws of history" would be discovered in a manner similar to that of the discovery of laws in the fields of the natural sciences. Little progress has been made in the search for such laws.

The error made by the historians seeking laws in human society is based on the theory that, if the scientific method is applied to the field of history, the results will be comparable to those in the natural sciences. By a comparison of the natural sciences with the social sciences, however, it becomes evident that there are many differences. In the former, physical objects can be studied with the naked eye or with the aid of telescopes, microscopes, and other instruments. A large number of similar observations can be made and, by means of the scientific method, laws can be formulated. In the social sciences in general and in history in particular, a different process is involved. The variable human factor must be considered. Further, history deals with the past, which brings in the subjective element. Whether or not history repeats itself in accord with certain laws in a law-controlled world cannot be determined at the present time. Sociology and psychology will first have to make much progress in explaining the processes of men's actions and men's minds. If this can be done, then it may be shown that man is merely a cog in a great machine. If, on the other hand, it can be proved that man is a moral being, with infinite possibilities of growth and dynamic energy, the search for law in history cannot go far.

Most historians today oppose the idea of law in history. The general opinion held by writers of history has been well expressed in the following statement:

By casting off the determinism of empirical historiography, contemporary historiography makes room once more for the role of personality in history. If history is nothing except a "chain of causes" and individuals are merely atoms in the flow of things, then all of us, students and teachers alike, are mere puppets in a mechanical play. If, on the other hand, history-as-actuality is made in part at least by thought and purpose—by ideas—then there is room in the world for will, design, courage, and action, for the thinker who is also a doer. This does not mean that the individual is emancipated from all conditioning circumstances, that he can just make history out of his imagination; but it means that, by understanding the conditioning reality revealed by written history as thought and description, by anticipating the spirit of the coming age, he may cut new paths

through the present and co-operate with others in bringing achievements to pass.⁴

The mass of facts, consisting of past events and including the activities of nations, societies, and civilizations, written from varying points of view and differing motives, makes up the body of knowledge called history. It is from this material that the school has drawn for subject matter in the teaching of history. It is from this vast storehouse that course makers and textbook writers have obtained their materials for the history taught in schools.

History of a sort was included in instruction long before history was written, for primitive peoples handed down traditions from one generation to another. After the rise of written history, the subject found a place in the schools of Greece, Palestine, and Rome. During the Middle Ages, history was largely neglected in the schools. Likewise, the Latin grammar school, which arose in Europe at the close of the Middle Ages and dominated secondary education until the nineteenth century with its devotion to the classical languages, did not include history in its course of study, although some history was learned indirectly through the works of the classical authors.

Not many schools in America offered history during the colonial period. In the three decades before the Revolution, history was taught at different times in several private schools, including the Philadelphia Academy and the Germantown Academy. It was rarely found in the curriculum of the Latin grammar schools, although occasionally taught in a few, such as the grammar school preparatory to Princeton College. Before the colonial period closed, some of the leaders of public thought advocated the teaching of history. Of these, Benjamin Franklin was the most prominent. In his *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, Franklin based his whole scheme of education on historical study. In his *Idea of the English School*, he gave history a very important place. The pupil was to begin with Rollin's *Ancient and Roman History* and end with a study of British history, including the colonial phase. This appears to be the earliest recommendation for the study of American history. However, slight attention was generally paid to his proposals for introducing history into the schools, and the subject made little headway.

In the few colonial schools where history was taught, it was natural that the fields in that subject should pertain largely to the classics. Ancient history, Roman history, antiquities, mythology, and chronology were the courses given. No textbook in American history appeared, and all

⁴ C. A. BEARD, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies (New York, 1934), p. 61.

indications point to the fact that neither colonial history nor British history found a place in the colonial schools.

During the troublesome period of the Confederation and the difficult years of the establishment of the new republic of the United States, history did not increase much in favor in the schools. A few grammar schools and academies included history, usually ancient history, in their curricula. After the War of 1812, although it was none too gloriously waged except for the battles on the lakes and Andrew Jackson's victory at New Orleans, the patriotic fervor and national enthusiasm that swept over the country resulted in the first attempts to introduce the study of American history and the federal Constitution into the schools. However, not until the third decade of the nineteenth century, with the rise of Jacksonian democracy, did history take root in the secondary schools. It gradually spread over the country, and attempts were made to require the teaching of the history of the United States by law. By the time of the Civil War, it had gained a place in the curriculum and was generally accepted as a school subject. The types of history taught in academies and high schools included United States history, English history, general history, Greek antiquities, Roman antiquities, mythology, and ecclesiastical history.

History found a place in the curriculum of the secondary school partly because educators believed that it was an excellent subject for training the memory and for the formal discipline of the mind, in accord with the ideas of "faculty psychology" which were then dominant in educational theory. Other reasons for its adoption were stressed at this time when "practical" subjects were being freely admitted into the curriculum of the secondary school. History was believed to be valuable in inculcating morals, in developing the religious life, in inspiring patriotism, in training for citizenship, and in providing for the profitable use of leisure time. Its introduction into the school was evidence of the beginning of a broadening view of the purpose of education and the extension of its functions.

During the period of reconstruction following the Civil War, there was a great increase in history teaching in the secondary schools. The period to about 1890 was one in which powerful educational factors were at work; these later completely changed educational theory and pedagogical methods. The rapid acceptance and spread of the natural sciences in the curriculum of the secondary school and the new ideas about education that were being developed in Europe were important factors. Herbartian ideas, especially, were slowly but surely finding their way across the ocean. Aims, subject matter, and methods, however, remained about the same as during the period before the Civil War, and little improvement in the teaching of history occurred.

By 1890, the time was ripe for the application of new and better ideas and methods to the teaching of the social studies. The influence of such men as Herbart and Spencer was beginning to tear down the old ideas based on the educational philosophy of "faculty psychology." It was natural that the decade of the nineties was one of great educational activity. Investigations of various kinds were made by individuals, committees, and organizations. Among the various educational committees that investigated the teaching of history and made recommendations pertinent to its improvement were the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, which reported in 1893, and the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, which reported in 1898. The influence of these and other reports upon the teaching of history cannot be overestimated. They will be discussed elsewhere in this volume.

Not only did the decade of the nineties mark the beginning of discussion about aims, methods, and the courses of history that should be taught, but changes were occurring that finally resulted in the enlargement of the subject matter of history in the schools in the twentieth century. A broader concept of the materials of history was becoming evident among historians, and this concept was reflected in written history. The change may be traced to the transformation of a large part of society from agrarianism to industrialism, as a result of the Industrial Revolution. Throughout most of the nineteenth century, the postulate that "history is past politics" held good and history was essentially political. In the meantime, a "new" history was developing. The economic, social, and cultural life of mankind began to find a place in history. Throughout the second half of the nineteenth century, especially, many historians were becoming concerned with the history of the masses of the people as well as with the history of monarchs and classes. The scope of written history broadened considerably.

The changes, however, did not begin to affect school textbooks and school instruction until after the close of the nineteenth century. Transformation became general only after the twentieth century was well under way. The old texts dealt chiefly with political and military affairs, stressing wars especially. The subject matter was rigid and lifeless. Changes that have occurred since the beginning of the present century have enlarged the boundaries of history, as taught in the secondary school, to include social, economic, industrial, scientific, and cultural aspects in addition to the political phases. School history is to some degree also becoming interpretative rather than merely descriptive.

History occupies a central place in the social-studies program of the secondary school of today. Changes, however, have taken place during the last three decades that tend to crowd certain courses in history from

the curriculum; for example, English history, in order to make room for the nonhistorical studies of civics, economics, sociology, and problems of American democracy. The Committee of Seven, reporting in 1898, evidently intended to produce embryo historians in the secondary school by outlining a four-year course including ancient history, medieval and modern European history, and English history, as well as American history and civil government. The recommendation was widely accepted and was made the basis for most secondary-school programs in history. The influence of the work of this committee has not completely disappeared even today. With the evolution of new general aims in education—of adjustment to environment and preparation for intelligent citizenship—the nonhistorical social studies have been added. To make room for these, the Committee on the Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association recommended in 1916 that the three-year sequence of ancient, medieval and modern European, and English history be made a one-year course of world history, to be given in the ninth or the tenth grade. This suggestion conflicted with the recommendation of the Committee of Seven (1898), which had opposed the old one-year course in general history. Nevertheless, world-history courses have been introduced into many schools, although not without criticism, chiefly because of the large amount of factual material that they contain. The introduction and acceptance of the new social studies have resulted in the tendency to obliterate courses in ancient, medieval, and English history as separate courses and to incorporate these into a course in world history, with the emphasis especially on the modern period. American history, entrenched by legislation, is a required subject.

Civics and Political Science

The teaching of civics in American schools had its origin in the third decade of the nineteenth century about the time of the rise of Jacksonian democracy. It first found a place in the early high schools. The subject was introduced at a time when there was much controversial discussion over such questions as whether a state could nullify a law of the United States and whether a state under certain conditions could secede from the Union. The controversy was largely responsible for the introduction of the subject into the schools, and its place there is an evidence of the spirit of the times. The first courses in civics were not civics in the modern sense but may be better described as courses in civil government, by which appellation they were generally known. They did not draw for their subject matter upon that vast body of knowledge known as political science but dealt almost entirely with the United States Con-

stitution and the activities of the federal government. Occasionally, the study of the constitution of a state and a consideration of the machinery of state government were included. Courses in civics or civil government made little progress until after the Civil War. The period of reconstruction was one of intense interest in the national government and in constitutional questions. As a result of this, at a time when the curriculum was being expanded and enriched, the subject of American government found favor in the secondary schools of the country and was generally accepted.

Until about 1890, the subject of civics consisted chiefly of a formal study of the Constitution of the United States; the federal government; and the duties, qualifications, and salaries of government officers and officials. By this time in many schools, the study of state constitutions and the mechanics of state and local government were also added, chiefly as an introduction to the study of the federal Constitution and the national government. Courses in political science also developed rapidly in the secondary schools after the Civil War, with the aim of aiding the study of American civil government. Instruction in all courses in government throughout the period was mechanical. The method was that of memorization, often in a catechetical form. All emphasis was placed on memory and knowledge. Of all the tedious subjects in the curriculum during this period, civics or civil government was one of the driest and most uninteresting.

The two decades from about 1890 to 1910 mark a transitional period in the teaching of civics, which changed the subject from a monotonous study, emphasizing the machinery of government, to a vital subject, including the purposes and functions of American government and the relationship of the pupil to his government and to other social agencies. Many factors brought about the new civics. First, the writings and ideas of men in different fields of the social sciences formed the background for the new subject. In 1888, James Bryce brought out his influential work, *The American Commonwealth*, which differed decidedly from earlier treatises on government. He described in a vivid style the processes and activities of American political institutions. Not only did he discuss local, state, and national government, but he included such topics as political parties, the party system, lobbies, political corruption, public opinion, and woman suffrage. The work of this observant English traveler and gifted writer brought out many aspects of American life that had been neglected by writers in this field and also awakened educators to the opportunities in the vast amount of materials at the disposal of the schools. The influence of this book cannot be overestimated.

Among other writers and teachers who influenced the new civics were

the rising sociologists such as Lester F. Ward and George E. Vincent. These men pointed out the significance of other agencies of social control besides governments, constitutions, and laws. At the same time, John Dewey was the leader of a group that sought to emphasize the psychological and educational values of social institutions and the inclusion of ethical principles that should govern human relationships. Upheavals in educational theory and practice through the widespread adoption of Herbartian principles also played an important part among the many influences that shaped the new civics.

About 1910, the period of transition was over and the new civics emerged, not full-fledged to be sure, but with a modern viewpoint. Instead of the view that civics should be the memorization of subject matter or the accumulation and storing away of knowledge about government in the United States, to be utilized only when a pupil came of age, the new civics aims at being practical and interesting, affording the pupil training in citizenship. Emphasis is placed on human needs and problems and on the functions of the many different agencies that have been devised to meet these needs. Even more important than this is the part played by each pupil in understanding the problems of the present and in aiding to solve them, in adjusting himself to work with others in the community, and in advancing the common welfare, all of which the new civics attempts to bring about.

The movement toward a comprehensive study of all social institutions and agencies in one subject has resulted in some severe criticism. The new civics has greatly expanded the boundaries of the old civics, so that there is much overlapping on other social studies and much duplication of material. The subject as presented in the schools today includes not only a knowledge of the machinery, activities, and functions of government but also the study of such topics as the family, the school, the church, welfare work, labor, industry, immigration, and much other material of a social and economic nature. Many attempts have been made to solve the problem of such duplication of material in the various social studies. The most advanced of these is the introduction of fusion courses that include functional material selected from many of the fields of the social studies and fused into natural units. The similarity of much of the content in courses in civics, economics, sociology, and problems of American democracy is a serious matter that must be solved in some way if we are to emerge from the confusion now found in the materials of instruction in the social studies.

The place that civics holds in the curriculum of the secondary school today is an important one. From the third decade of the nineteenth century to the Civil War, slow progress was made in introducing the subject

into the schools of the country. During the period of reconstruction, civics under various appellations established itself as a subject in the secondary school. By 1892, it was estimated that civics was taught in about one-third of the schools in the country. With the changing emphasis on the content of the subject, beginning in the last decade of the nineteenth century, it spread rapidly from that time on. Today it is offered in almost all high schools, usually in the junior high school, but frequently in the senior high school as well.

The new civics is frequently called community civics, to emphasize the pupil's relation to his social environment, which is conceived as a series of successively enlarged communities—the local community, the town or city community, the county community, the state community, the national community, and the world community. Suggestions have been made and experiments have been tried in introducing as separate courses certain phases of the new civics; for example, economic civics and vocational civics. Economic civics, which emphasizes the economic environment of the pupil, can be better called economics. Vocational civics, which treats the consideration and selection of the pupil's lifework, can be better taught as a phase of community civics.

From one point of view, the civics introduced into the schools of America more than one hundred years ago, treating chiefly the Constitution and government of the United States, was an aspect of political science, although such courses did not draw upon that vast body of knowledge built up by such thinkers as Plato, Aristotle, Machiavelli, Hobbes, Locke, Hamilton, Treitschke, and a host of others and known as political science. Until the Civil War, few changes occurred in the teaching of civics or civil government in the schools. Following the Civil War, secondary schools in different sections of the country offered courses in political science, which included the study of the organization of states all over the world and their forms of government. As generally taught, the subject was intended to provide a background for the study of federal and state constitutions and the government of the United States or to show by means of comparison that the organization and form of government of the United States were superior to those of other countries. This idea was clearly expressed in the introduction to one of the textbooks in use during the period, to the effect that the study of comparative governments would "not interfere with the consideration of our state and federal constitutions, but will add to the pupil's understanding and appreciation of the methods and purpose of the government of the people, by the people and for the people."⁵

Until about 1890, courses in political science were offered in an in-

⁵ W. I. CHASE, *Civil Government in Theory and Practice* (Chicago, 1885), Preface.

creasingly large number of secondary schools. During the next decade, these courses were dropped from the curriculum of many schools or were made over into courses in civics or civil government. The increase in the number of civics courses during the latter years of the nineteenth century was remarkable. In only a few of them were the elements of political science as a whole taught. The new civics, with its emphasis on American government, institutions, and social agencies of various types, found an important place in the curriculum of American schools. Political science, as such, is taught in a number of secondary schools today, and when it is offered, it is generally in the senior high school.

Economics

The body of knowledge known as economics treats of the social phenomena that arise from the wealth-getting and wealth-using activities of man. Early economic theory seems to have had its origin in Greece, as may be evidenced in the writings of Plato and Aristotle. The word "economics" comes from the Greek and meant household management. On the principle of orderly but simple economic organization, based upon the household with its slaves and dependents, as well as upon foreign trade and the simple rudiments of banking, a certain amount of economic theory developed and may be found scattered throughout the work of many Greek writers.

When Roman militarism overcame and assimilated Greek culture, economic theory, such as it was, did not disappear but was taken over and developed further by the Romans. With the disruption of the empire, economic theory was lost in the wreckage of that once great civilization. During the Middle Ages, the quest for individual salvation became the impelling ideal of mankind. Individual wealth was largely abandoned, and usury in any form became a crime in most of the countries of Europe. Such commerce as existed and increased between the Italian cities and the East resulted in little written economic theory.

The Crusades stimulated commercial activities, and the years that followed witnessed a remarkable development of commerce and banking. Economic problems and questions arose, resulting in an interest in economic thought. In time, a new body of economic theory was created. It came directly after the commercial revolution, when the trade routes were shifting from the Mediterranean to the great oceans of the world, and at the time when national states were emerging.

The new body of thought crystallized into what became known as mercantilism. This was a theory of economic nationalism designed to bring gold and silver into the treasuries of the nations of the Old World. It was based on the idea that a nation should export more goods than it

imported, in order to have a favorable balance of trade, which should be paid for in the precious metals. Mercantilism held an important place in the life of nations for more than two centuries. The efforts to keep gold and silver within the confines of a nation, most of which was used to strengthen rising dynasties and to carry on devastating wars, led to legislation in all the leading countries of Europe regulating navigation and erecting tariff barriers.

Economics did not come into its own as a distinct and separate body of knowledge until the eighteenth century. The impetus to the study of the subject was given by the Physiocrats, led by Quesnay, Turgot, and others. This new school believed that all economic relations were governed by natural laws. The adherents opposed mercantilism and brought into prominence the idea of a sole tax on land. The era of *laissez faire*, which followed, was due in large measure to the work of the Physiocrats. This age became one of free competition and free labor, a time when industry expanded amazingly but at the expense of the working classes, which were ruthlessly exploited. The suffering and misery that arose, following the Industrial Revolution, from the absence of government control in economic affairs led to demands for reform before the eighteenth century closed.

The work of Adam Smith, father of the classical English school of economic thought, broadened the views of the Physiocrats. His *Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776, had great effect on the economic thought of his day. His system was later elaborated by Malthus, Ricardo, Mill, and others, who sought to combine the advantages of competition and government regulation. Although, during the years that followed, the misery of the masses was alleviated somewhat, suffering still remained common. The wealth and power of the nation and not the welfare of the masses still remained the chief end of the economists.

The nineteenth century saw changes in economic thought that aimed at the well-being of the masses. Beginning about the middle of the century, the movement developed through the writings of Karl Marx and others. The real social implications of economics were perceived. Recent developments, however, have gone to an extreme. Anarchism and communism are by-products of the new movement, and these have brought serious problems.

The teaching of economics in the secondary schools of the United States began about the same time as the teaching of civil government. Text-books in economics, which appeared as early as the third decade of the nineteenth century, show that the subject was exceedingly abstract and was usually taught in connection with moral or political philosophy, stress being placed on the ethics of securing and using wealth in all its

forms. It was also taught under the name of political economy. From 1857 to 1898, Massachusetts required by law the teaching of political economy in all her larger high schools. Until the Civil War, little progress was made, however, in teaching economics in any form in the secondary schools in other parts of the country.

The rapid expansion of industry and business after the Civil War was reflected in the curriculum of the secondary school, and economics gained somewhat in prestige as courses were made a little more practical. The subject, when offered in the secondary schools, was still taught in a formal manner as a logically organized science and was little suited to the needs, abilities, and capacities of most high-school pupils. Until about 1890, the same textbooks were written for use in college and high-school classes. The last decade of the nineteenth century marked the beginning of a period of transition in the materials of instruction in economics, and textbooks appeared that were prepared solely for high-school use.

As was the case with civics, the last decade of the nineteenth century and the opening decade of the twentieth century marked a transitional period in the form and content of courses in economics. During this period, textbooks became increasingly concrete and practical, and courses were better adapted to the needs, maturity, and capacities of pupils. The reasons for the transition can be easily seen in the tremendous social and economic changes that had been taking place from the time of the Civil War.

The aim of the new economics is to train pupils in economic citizenship. It plans to aid the pupil in acquiring a knowledge and understanding of the fundamental principles of our economic life, so that he may be able to adapt himself intelligently to this phase of his environment and to face with understanding and ability the problems that arise. It is evident that the complexity of modern industrial, economic, and social life in our country requires that each individual be trained at least in the fundamental principles of everyday economics. A distinction must be made between the teaching of economics in colleges and the teaching of that subject in high schools. In colleges, economic theory and a philosophic study of economics as a logically organized science are included in instruction in the subject. In secondary schools, the study of economic principles and problems relating to present-day life, an understanding of economic relationships, and the recognition of the social nature of economic activity, should provide the basis for a course to achieve the aims of training pupils in economic citizenship.

In 1890, about 5 per cent of the secondary schools in this country offered separate courses in economics. At the present time, the percent-

age has not increased appreciably, although most students study economic material in other courses, such as the tariff in history courses and economic problems in courses in problems of democracy. Economics as a separate course is largely an elective subject and is usually offered in the twelfth grade, although frequently it is given in the eleventh, tenth, or ninth grade.

Sociology

The background of the body of knowledge known as sociology is complex. Both the term "sociology" and the science in its modern acceptance date from Auguste Comte's description of it in 1838 as "the science of the associated life of humanity."⁶ The conceptions upon which the science rests date much further back, and Comte himself ascribes its first principles to Montesquieu and Condorcet. Implications of the subject may be traced back to the works of Pythagoras and Thales. Sociology developed during the nineteenth century at the time when the older studies of history, political economy, and public law were being transformed and when new ones, including anthropology, comparative religions, criminology, and social geography, were being created. Of the several outstanding leaders after Comte, Spencer was the most important. His greatest contributions to sociology were the application of the doctrine of evolution to social development and his view of society as a "social organism."

The first college course in sociology in the United States was offered at Yale University in 1876. Other colleges followed; and by the close of the century, sociology became a recognized subject in the college curriculum. During this period, some attempts were made to introduce the subject into the secondary school. By 1900, a few high schools, scattered in different parts of the country, offered such courses. Most of the leading sociologists of the country, however, emphatically opposed the teaching of sociology in the secondary schools. Little progress was made in introducing the subject into the high schools until after the First World War. As late as 1913, sociology as a separate subject was rarely offered. From about 1918 to the present, its acceptance in the curriculum of the high school has been rapid, especially in the schools of the Middle and Far West, although such courses are offered in schools in different sections all over the country.

High-school sociology has been the object of much criticism during recent years. The criticism has been made that too much stress is placed on the pathological and abnormal aspects of society, that the approach to the study is bookish and pedantic, that the textbooks in the field are

⁶ *Cours de philosophie positive* (Paris, 1839), IV, pp. 179 ff.

poor and unsuitable, and that teachers are not trained to teach the subject. Within the past few years, however, the teaching of this subject has improved greatly. Excellent textbooks have appeared, which have contributed much to this improvement. The subject is growing in popularity and is maintaining itself in the curriculum of the social studies in secondary schools.

When courses in sociology were first introduced into the high schools, the subject was presented in an abstract manner and the content was not related to the actualities of the contemporary world. The best courses today introduce the pupil to the social world of which he is a member and stress an understanding of the social environment. An objective study of the development of social institutions and of social relations is made, in order to present a background for the study of present-day institutions and life. Although pathological aspects must be included in any objective study of society, these phases are not overemphasized. Much progress has been made in recent years in working out adequate courses of study in high-school sociology.

Problems of Democracy

An enlightened and well-informed citizenry is essential if American democracy is to survive and make progress. It is a responsibility of American schools to prepare pupils for intelligent participation in community, state, national, and international affairs. Many individuals believe that the study of history and other social studies is not enough to accomplish this important objective. The proponents of a different type of course—a course in the problems of American democracy—insist that, through various classroom activities, pupils be given as much practical experience as possible in many of the important social, political, and economic problems with which Americans are faced. By this means it is believed that American youth can be better trained for their adult responsibilities.

Such a course, given as the pupil approaches the threshold of adult participation in community life, presents vital issues in local, national, and international affairs. It offers him the opportunity for discussion, investigation, and consultation on major issues confronting the United States, which has become a world leader. It works toward the objectives of an improved understanding of the implications of those problems and of transmitting a knowledge of the processes through which intelligent action may be taken to improve the general welfare.

The course known as problems of democracy or problems of American democracy was suggested and recommended in 1916 by the Committee on the Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. The Committee

defended its recommendations on the grounds that, owing to the increased number of courses in the social-studies curriculum, it was not possible for pupils to take all the social studies offered in the high school and therefore proposed to solve the difficulty by adding a new course made up of the material—political, social, and economic—of the other social studies. The new course, as its name suggests, was to be organized and taught in the form of problems. Little progress was made in introducing this course into the schools until after 1920, when suitable textbooks for such a course began to appear. From that date to the present, the subject has been accepted by high schools all over the country, and today it occupies an important place in the curriculum.

When the Committee recommended the new course in problems of democracy in 1916, its recommendation did not mean to discard one social study in favor of another or to combine the various social studies into one course to be given pupils in their last year in high school, but it did suggest a course in "actual problems, or issues, or conditions as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological." Since, in actual life, problems or issues, and not subjects or sciences, have to be met, the Committee proposed that the various social studies be drawn upon to interpret present-day problems and issues. A course in problems of democracy is required for graduation in many high schools all over the country, and a number of states either have included the subject in their courses of study or have recommended its inclusion in the curriculum of their high schools. The course is usually taught in the twelfth grade, under the title of problems of democracy, problems of American democracy, modern problems, or social problems.

Current Issues or Current Events

A study of current events began to find a place in the curriculum of the secondary school in the years just prior to the outbreak of the First World War, but it was that catastrophe which gave the impetus for the introduction of the subject into an increasing number of schools. The spectacular events of the opening years of the war and the entry of the United States into the conflict brought about a great interest in world affairs on the part of the American people. This interest coincided with the growing demand of the period that the social studies should have a more functional value. The criticism was made not only of the dominance of history in the social-studies offerings, but also of the failure of history to bring its story down to the present, thus leaving the pupil ignorant of contemporary events.

In view of the ignorance about current issues, many regarded the school as failing in its task of teaching pupils to understand the complex world

in which they live, while at the same time the demand was made that all courses, as far as possible, should be practical and functional. Many believed that the study of current happenings and problems would aid pupils to understand their political, economic, and social environment and prepare them for useful living. In view of all this, it was not difficult for the study of current events to find its way into the social-studies curriculum. The teaching of the subject became contagious, so that to-day it is endorsed by most educators and included in courses of study all over the country.

The place of current events in the curriculum has grown to relatively large proportions and many reasons may be found to explain this growth. Pupils are interested in the events of the present world. The world is becoming a much smaller place in which to live, for modern transportation and communication have broken down distances. The pupil of to-day may listen to a program on the radio from any part of the world, and television is playing an important part in broadening knowledge about the contemporary world. Modern youth knows more about European and Asiatic affairs than did the average cultured man of a generation ago.

Although the importance of the course in current events has been generally recognized, many different opinions are held in regard to its place and its organization in the curriculum. In some schools, it is part of a history course, the teacher allotting five to ten minutes of each lesson to current events, or one day a week; in others, it is taught in connection with English courses; in still other schools, the course in current events is treated as a separate subject. Many believe that the study should be closely interwoven with some other subject, such as problems of democracy or even civics. Regardless of how it is taught, its importance in the secondary-school curriculum is recognized by all educators.

Geography

Geography is one of the oldest studies of mankind, for descriptions of the physical features of the earth were made in ancient times. Ptolemy and Strabo are examples of early geographers, and many Greeks and Roman philosophers studied and described the world in which they lived. However, their knowledge was limited and they used little correlation and interpretation. With the growth of geographical knowledge in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries—knowledge which proved beyond a doubt that the earth was a sphere—progress was made. One of the most important contributions to geography in this period was the German Bernard Varen's *Geographia Generalis* (1650), which presented a systematic account of geographical knowledge. With the growth of the studies of astronomy, geology, meteorology, physics, and other

subjects, geography entered a new period. The first modern systematic treatment of the subject matter of geography was made by Immanuel Kant at the end of the eighteenth century. As time went on, the emphasis upon the physical features of the earth passed to the human aspect—the study of the relationship between man and his environment.

For some years, significant changes have been taking place in the objectives and content of geography, which bring it closer and closer to the realm of the social studies. Modern geography is becoming an explanatory study, showing how the environment has conditioned and influenced the rise and movement of civilization as well as the lives and destinies of peoples. It has departed a long way from the old formal subject known as geography, which was made up largely of lists of geographical names and descriptions of boundaries. There is much argument and doubt, however, as to whether geography is a physical or a social science. The old geographers called it a natural or physical science, and many today still maintain that viewpoint. The changes that have occurred—from the attitude that geography is purely physical to the point of view that it is a study of the interacting relations of man and his environment—tend to enlarge the conception of the subject and to place it among the social sciences and the social studies. Although many still hold to the old idea that geography is “the science of the earth” and is therefore purely physical, increasing numbers are turning to the new viewpoint. A few, who are not quite sure about its classification, call it both a physical and a social science.

Geography found a place in the American secondary-school curriculum long before the introduction of history. During the late colonial period, when little thought was given to teaching history, geography could be found in the curriculum of a few Latin grammar schools and the rising academies. In the eighteenth century, geography textbooks were small in size but included material that ranged from accounts of the celestial bodies to descriptions of the subterranean regions of the earth. They contained facts relating to astronomy, geology, meteorology, physiography, and even botany and zoology. Many of them described the customs of various peoples and touched to a slight extent the fields of religion, government, and history. The earliest textbooks came from England; but in 1774 Jedidiah Morse published his *Geography Made Easy*, which went through twenty-five editions and was still in use during the Civil War, although many others had appeared by that time.

During the first decades of the nineteenth century, there was a trend to narrow somewhat the broad range of secondary-school geography from a study of the entire universe to a study of the world and, in a few cases, to America. Not until after the Civil War, however, were the so-

cial aspects of geography considered seriously. By that time the influence of Pestalozzi was making itself felt in this country and the work of Karl Ritter, the German geographer, and Arnold Henry Guyot, the Swiss-American geographer, led textbook writers to pay more attention to the idea that the field of geography should be vitally concerned with the relationship between man and his environment.

By the last decade of the nineteenth century, the gaining emphasis upon the social aspects of geography gave way to a stress upon physical geography, which also reflected the results of the research that was taking place in the field of geology. The evolutionary factors of geography found a place in many texts. In that period another type of textbook appeared which brought out the commercial aspects of geography. Secondary-school textbooks, however, remained largely abstract and statistical. The memorization of many geographical terms was still regarded as essential in teaching the subject. Physical geography was given the chief emphasis and pupils were required to memorize such details as the boundaries of countries and states, as well as lists of capitals, cities, and important rivers.

Not until the twentieth century did the work of the social geographers bear fruit in the secondary schools. In many cases, the subject came to be classed as a social science. The philosophy of John Dewey and his school of thinkers profoundly influenced the new geography. Emphasis was laid on the relationships and cultures of peoples of different areas and countries; the subject became increasingly an explanation of the reactions between man and his environment, instead of an array of facts and definitions; and more attention was paid to the gradation of the field on the different school levels where it was taught. The First World War was another influence that helped to shape the new geography.

A survey of the teaching of geography in the junior high schools of the United States at the present time reveals that such courses are taught under different names. World geography, United States geography, social geography, human geography, commercial geography, and economic geography are some of the titles in different schools. The study emphasizes a knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of peoples, their ideas and their problems in the various sections of the United States and in the different regions of the world, as related to their natural geographic environment.

The only apparent uniformity in the teaching of geography in junior high schools exists in a study of the geography of the United States in the seventh or eighth grades. This study treats the life and activities of the major economic regions of our country and presents their relationship to the work and natural environments of foreign lands. This ap-

proach seems to be superior to other plans of organization. However, in many junior high schools, geography is only a little more than a repetition of the subject as taught in the elementary school.

Economic or commercial geography dominates the geography courses in the senior high school, although a large majority of students receive no training whatever in geography on this level. However, the Second World War gave some impetus to the teaching of political geography and to other aspects of the subject. Many social-studies teachers believe that geography should be taught not as a separate course in the secondary school, but rather as an integral part of the study of history, civics, and current problems; it would thus give background and reality to the study of human activity. The social studies are complex and often confusing to the young student, but they gain clarity when the physical influences behind them are developed.

Summary

The social sciences are bodies of organized knowledge and thought about human affairs. The social studies, although drawing upon the social sciences for their subject matter, have as their chief aim the training of boys and girls to take their places as efficient members of society. History was taught in very few American schools before the second decade of the nineteenth century. After the Civil War, it became an important school subject. The "new" history, which is now taught, includes the social, economic, industrial, and cultural aspects of history in addition to the political. Civics, or civil government, was introduced into a few secondary schools as early as the third decade of the nineteenth century, but was chiefly a formal study of the Constitution and government of the United States. Since 1890, a new civics has developed, which aims to give a practical training in citizenship. At the present time, it is found in the curriculum of almost all secondary schools. Political science—largely a background for a study of civil government—was introduced into the schools rapidly after the Civil War and held its own until about the end of the century, when it gave way to civics.

Economics found a place in a few secondary schools in the United States about the same time as civil government. At first, it was taught in a very abstract manner, usually in connection with moral or political philosophy. Changes took place in the subject; and during the latter part of the nineteenth century, it became more practical. Today a new economics has developed which is intended to aid pupils to understand the fundamental principles of our economic life and to adapt themselves to their economic environment. Sociology is a recent addition to the curriculum of the secondary school, although a few schools offered it as early as

1900. In recent years, it has spread rapidly, finding favor especially in the schools of the Middle and Far West. The course known as problems of democracy is a later addition to the curriculum and is intended to give pupils a training in contemporary political, social, and economic problems. The subject has established itself and is required for graduation in many states. Current events has received increasing emphasis in the schools during the past two or three decades, and its importance in the curriculum today is widely recognized. In its physical aspects, the teaching of geography antedates the teaching of history. In recent years the subject has passed through significant changes which bring it close to the realm of the social studies, the new geography stressing the interacting relations of man and his environment.

As a result of a complex and changing environment, emphasis is being placed today upon the social sciences and upon the teaching of the social studies as a means of attempting to solve the many problems of American society. A well-integrated program of social studies in the schools, in coordination with other subjects, is essential in order to provide an efficient basis for training boys and girls to become effective citizens.

Questions

1. Distinguish between the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities.
2. Show why the classification of knowledge into the natural sciences and the social sciences is a satisfactory one for general purposes.
3. Explain the differences between the purposes of the social sciences and the social studies.
4. Define history. What are some of the difficulties of writing impartial history?
5. Trace the introduction of the study of history in the secondary schools of the United States from the first attempts to teach the subject to its general acceptance in the curriculum.
6. Show the development of the nonhistorical social studies in the program of the secondary school.
7. Give the reasons for the rise of the new history, the new civics, and the new economics.
8. Give arguments for and against the inclusion of a course in sociology in the secondary school.
9. Why was the course known as problems of democracy introduced into the curriculum? What is its status at present?
10. Should current events be taught each year in junior and senior high schools? Give reasons for your answer..
11. Is geography a physical or a social science? Give your reasons.
12. Why are the social sciences and social studies more important today than ever before?

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CHAPTER II

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Early Aims and Objectives

Aims and objectives have been set up in education from the first attempts at instruction. Sometimes the aims and objectives have been vague, but in general those who defined them had definite ideas of what they were trying to do. The best thinkers set up clear and unmistakable goals toward which they strove. The aims of education in primitive times dealt with the preservation of life—the problems of securing food and shelter as well as the means of protection from enemies and the hazards of nature. With the development of formal education from the time of the Greeks to our own, statements of objectives have represented the advanced thinking of the age in which they were formulated. One of the earliest of such statements was made by Plato, who maintained that education should shape the life of the individual in a well-rounded fashion, developing “the body and the soul” harmoniously to their fullest extent.¹ This was to be achieved, however, in Greece for the good of the state. Alcuin, Maurus, Erigena, Pestalozzi, Spencer, Huxley, and other leaders all defined the advanced ideas of their day as to the goal of education. Such aims as civic, political, religious, ethical, individualistic, militaristic, and nationalistic have been emphasized and have dominated education throughout the centuries, from time to time and from place to place.

In early America the aims and objectives of education were colored by the importance of religion. The early settlers brought with them from Europe their conceptions of the church which in most cases directly linked learning with religion. Elementary schooling emphasized reading in order that pupils could understand the Bible and the literature of the church. The religious interest lasted until the latter part of the eighteenth century. By that time, new secular interests had begun to take the place of religion and a state theory of education was beginning to appear.

Secondary schools naturally were in harmony with the basic philosophy of the period in which they originated. The Latin grammar school, the secondary school of the early period, was concerned chiefly in preparing students for college in order to supply leaders for service in the church

¹ *Republic*, Book VII.

and the state. With the waning of religious interest in the last decades of the eighteenth century, a demand arose for a more practical secondary institution. As a result, academies sprang up in various parts of the country and the Latin grammar school in time declined. The importance of Latin and Greek, together with the *memoriter* method and the philosophy of mental discipline, gave way to newer subjects of a more practical value. The academy movement spread rapidly during the first half of the nineteenth century and finally dominated secondary education until 1850. The academies, while retaining the study of Latin, did not emphasize college preparation, but stressed the practical subjects that were better adapted to the needs of the people of that day, although many were forced to add a classical curriculum for those entering college. The study of United States history was introduced into the academy in the early part of the nineteenth century. The aims set up for the subject included moral, religious, patriotic, civic, and disciplinary aspects. However, the method emphasized the memorization of subject matter.

The success of these tuition academies, with their emphasis on practical subjects, naturally influenced the demand for including the high school in the rising public-school systems. The fight for free public schools, which was being won in the elementary field, was advanced, therefore, to the higher level. Although the first high school was opened in Boston in 1821, it was not until the latter half of the nineteenth century that the public secondary school found an acceptable place in American public-school systems.

Although the public high schools provided the broadened curriculum of the academy and introduced many new subjects, the fact remained that the pupils who attended them were a select group and came from homes representing education and culture. It was natural, therefore, for the high schools to take on a college-preparatory outlook. Even in the days of the academy, a number of colleges based their entrance requirements on the classical course of that institution.

Present-day Trends in Aims and Objectives

Aims and objectives in American secondary schools have undergone great change during the twentieth century because of many factors. In the first place, a comparison of conditions today with those of fifty years ago indicates that life has become very complex. This change in itself demands new aims and a new curriculum. Then again, the secondary-school population has changed from a small, select group to a large, diverse number of well over half the American youth of high-school age. Also, modern educators now insist that the secondary schools must meet the needs of all American youth or, at least, of all those who can be edu-

cated. The school of today, therefore, cannot emphasize college preparation as its main objective as did the school of a half century ago, for the needs of all American youth must be considered.

Many committees and commissions have worked on aims and objectives for secondary education in order to meet the educational needs of American youth. Probably the forerunner of the movement or, at least, the one that gave impetus to the trend was the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, appointed by the National Education Association in 1916. This Commission made a report that has been widely accepted as a statement of general aims for American secondary schools. The Commission, in its report known as the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, held that education in the United States should be guided by a clear and distinct conception of the meaning of democracy. Each individual member of society should be given opportunities to develop and prepare himself for the greatest usefulness to himself and to society. Therefore, education in a democracy "should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends."² The seven cardinal principles or objectives set up by the Commission to accomplish these ends are as follows: (1) sound health knowledge and habits; (2) command of the fundamental processes, including reading, writing, arithmetical computation, and oral and written expression; (3) worthy home membership; (4) education for a vocation; (5) education for good citizenship; (6) worthy use of leisure; and (7) ethical character. These objectives have been stated and restated, vamped and revamped, revised and modified in various ways by educational writers and theorists.

The report raised many questions for educators to answer. If education is to help the individual find his place in a democratic society and to aid in creating a better social order, questions immediately arise as to the nature of society as well as to its ideals. In view of these and similar queries, the National Education Association selected the Committee on Social-economic Goals of America. In 1934, this Committee made a report outlining ten desirable goals. These are stated briefly as follows:

1. Hereditary strength
2. Physical security
3. Culture—skills and knowledge
4. Culture—values and outlooks
5. An active flexible personality

² *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 35 (Washington, 1918), p. 9.

6. Suitable occupation
7. Economic security
8. Mental security
9. Freedom
10. Fair play and equal opportunity³

The Committee continued to work after the publication of the report emphasizing the part that education must play in achieving its goals. It has issued other publications. One in 1935, *Creating Social Intelligence*, shows how leading schools are teaching social-economic material. Another was published in 1937, entitled *Implications of Social-economic Goals for Education*.

Another committee of the National Education Association, the Educational Policies Commission, took up the problem of what the schools in the United States should seek to accomplish. A publication of the Committee issued in 1938 outlined educational purposes. Four groups of objectives are identified. The groups are organized under the following names: (1) self-realization, (2) understanding of human relationships, (3) acceptance of civic responsibility, and (4) attainment of economic efficiency.⁴

In 1944, the Educational Policies Commission published a volume entitled *Education for All American Youth*. This has been summarized by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in a pamphlet entitled *Planning for American Youth*. The commission outlined a typical program of education for a rural area and one for an urban area. These programs are not intended to be definite patterns for all communities but rather suggestive of what secondary schools should be like. The goals of education must be set to satisfy what are termed ten "Imperative Needs of Youth." These are based on the specific needs of pupils and on the needs that society requires of all youth. They are expressed as follows:

1. All youth need to develop salable skills.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society.

³ National Education Association, *The Social-economic Goals of America*, Committee on Social-economic Goals of America (Washington, 1934). The outline may be found in the National Education Association, *Journal*, 27 (January, 1938), p. 9.

⁴ National Education Association, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Educational Policies Commission (Washington, 1938). The outline may be found in the National Education Association, *Journal*, 28 (February, 1939), pp. 48-49.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently.
6. All youth need to understand the influence of science on human life.
7. All youth need an appreciation of literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally.⁵

The aims and objectives of secondary education are firmly rooted in the needs of the individual and the needs of society. However, there is danger in overemphasizing the one or the other so that the result may be a rugged individualism on the one hand or a totalitarian conception on the other. In outlining the needs of youth and of society there is also a danger of overemphasizing the part that the school must play. Too often the formation of a list of needs has resulted in inserting into the curriculum or adding to the school program items that are unnecessary or that could be done better by other agencies. A physical-education program in the school must necessarily be different in a rural community, where boys and girls hurry home to do their chores on the farm, than in a city, where little physical work is required of pupils and playground facilities are limited. Some physical-education instructors have asked that their pupils be scheduled for five periods a week, solely on the ground that their subject is just as important as English. The problem of specific vocational education is another example of the need for clear thinking concerning aims. Many jobs in industry require little or no skill, especially for beginners, and to prepare skilled workers for jobs that will not be available, or that industry itself would prefer to train, is not satisfying needs. Schoolmen must realize that the school is one of many agencies and that economic and social environment affect the needs of youth.

With this in mind, attention may be called to another report which has caused much comment among schoolmen. This is the report of the Harvard Committee, set forth in the volume *General Education in a Free Society*. The report is not, as its origin may imply, on the collegiate level alone, but rather is an inquiry into the problem of general education in both schools and colleges. It states that "education seeks to do two things: help young persons fulfil the unique, particular functions in life which it is

⁵ National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth* (Washington, 1944), p. 10.

in them to fulfil, and fit them so far as it can for those common spheres which as citizens and heirs of a joint culture they will share with others." Probably the outstanding importance of the report is the emphasis it places on education as a preparation for life, in the sense of completeness in a human being, rather than on individual competence in a particular sphere. While recognizing specialistic training, it places an emphasis on education "in a common heritage and toward a common citizenship." This broad cultural education, based on a pattern sanctioned by the past, should foster the following abilities:

1. To think effectively
2. To communicate thought
3. To make relevant judgments
4. To discriminate among values ⁶

A previous description of the supreme purpose of American secondary education, which is in accord with the Harvard report, is given in the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. In its conclusion, the Commission states that the chief purpose of education in the United States is to create and develop "rich and many-sided personalities" and also to prepare the "rising generation to enter the society now coming into being through thought, ideal and knowledge, rather than through coercion, regimentation, and ignorance, and to shape the form of that society in accordance with American ideals of popular liberty and dignity." ⁷

The Commission on Life Adjustment Education has also worked on the problem of secondary-school aims. As a result of its work in 1948, the Commission outlined the following categories of behaviors needed for life adjustment: (1) home and community life, (2) citizenship, (3) ethical and moral values, (4) relationships as a worker and producer, (5) scientific understandings, appreciations, and skills (including health), (6) communication skills, (7) consumer judgment, and (8) recreational experiences. ⁸

A careful study of all these reports will indicate the trend in objectives today in building a curriculum to fit the needs of all American youth. While the various reports show lines of difference, such as the emphasis placed on the vocational or on the cultural, yet the points of

⁶ Report of the Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1945), p. 66.

⁷ American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations*, p. 39.

⁸ U.S. Office of Education, *Work Conference on Life Adjustment Education* (Washington, 1948).

agreement are marked. Each committee or commission started its work by centering its attention on the youth to be educated, and his needs and that of society became the basis of the report.

The Social Studies and the Objectives of Education

The discussion thus far has been concerned chiefly with the general aims and objectives of education. If we accept or formulate general objectives, it follows that every subject and activity in the school should lead toward outcomes in harmony with them. It even goes further, for the objectives must be viewed as a whole in order that no one phase of them will be emphasized at the expense of the others. This is the reason that curriculum improvement is such a difficult task. One could easily justify the program in operation in the schools from the point of view that all subjects and activities contribute to the general aims of education, yet at the same time certain areas could be neglected.

Many believe that the social studies, by virtue of their special content and because of the methods and procedures that may be used in teaching them, should contribute greatly to achieving the goals of American education. For this reason, many educators advocate placing the social studies in the center of the school curriculum. However, even this constitutes a problem, for the question arises as to what social studies will contribute most to the general objectives of secondary education. This gives rise to the relative value of history as compared with the other social studies. Unfortunately, many base their decision on a utilitarian point of view and forget the truth of the saying that man shall not live by bread alone. Naturally, the decision of what should be taught must rest in the general aims. Granting this, it is more important that the adolescent pupil be given training in the principles of citizenship than that he should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of each or all of the social studies. John Dewey, speaking of history in this connection, has rightly said: "Whatever history may be for the scientific historian, for the educator it must be indirect sociology." In other words, the chief purpose of teaching history in the public schools is to train citizens and not to produce scientific historians. The materials of the social studies must be used in conformity with the purpose of secondary education.

The Relation between Aims and Outcomes

Although this chapter deals with aims and objectives, it is necessary to consider the subject of outcomes. The only purpose in setting up aims and objectives is that we may plan and strive to attain them. Too often, when aims have been carefully worked out, little effort has been made to correlate them with teaching methods and the materials of instruction.

Probably the chief criticism of many courses of study today is leveled against the meaningless aims and objectives that serve as a preface to them. Members of committees that have worked on them have often admitted the lack of correlation between them and the outcomes expected. The outcomes are most important, for they deal with the actual values achieved through instruction as a result of the aims and objectives that have been set up.

In dealing with outcomes, one is confronted with the part that the curriculum plays in their attainment. There is an increasing emphasis placed today on curriculum in the achievement of aims. While it is true that a certain amount of knowledge should be the possession of American youth, it does not follow that the knowledge alone will bring about those changes in behavior for which we strive. Yet often, when an evil appears, the solution suggested is a new course or new material in the curriculum. Juvenile delinquency increases, and so a course in sex education must be taught in the schools. Automobile accidents increase, therefore schools must incorporate driver-education courses. Many agree that such knowledge should be given by the school, but to expect such knowledge and skills to change attitudes and ideals is another question. Recently a judge, confronted with an increasing juvenile crime rate, suggested and planned as his solution to the problem a new course on the Bill of Rights. He was unaware of the civic education carried on in the schools, but was convinced that his course would correct the situation. He did not understand, however, that even a complete knowledge of the subject would not insure respect for the Bill of Rights. Higher ideals and better attitudes are also needed.

Another problem of outcomes concerns the evaluation of the various traits that are desirable. The encouragement of pupil initiative, found in many schools today under the impetus of democratic procedures, should not be gained at the expense of self-discipline. In a city private school which makes great claims for its program, pains are taken to develop pupil initiative. However, the program may be justly criticized when public speakers, after experiencing a session in the school, refuse to return to speak in the assemblies because of the lack of discipline in the group. Pupil initiative is a desirable trait, but when it fails to respect the rights of others it is condemned.

The Contribution of the Social Studies to Education

The aims of the social studies may be expressed as follows: (1) the enrichment and development of the lives of pupils to the greatest extent of their abilities and powers within their environment, and (2) the training of pupils to take their places in a democratic society in such a way

as to make their country a better place in which to live. In order to accomplish these aims, certain specific objectives must be set up and achieved. The teaching of factual knowledge is not enough. The pupil must be taught to realize the influences that control his life, as well as those lives with which he comes in contact. The inculcation of the spirit of co-operation, the development of tolerance and an understanding and a sympathy for mankind, as well as practice in constructive thinking, reasoning, and critical judgment, should be the main purposes of the social studies in achieving the general objectives of education. The specific aims, therefore, should include the teaching of certain definite knowledge, advancement in intellectual life, and concomitant learnings such as habits, skills, ideals, attitudes, and appreciations. These may be classified into five groups: (1) acquiring of knowledge, (2) development of reasoning power and critical judgment, (3) training in independent study, (4) formation of habits and skills, and (5) training in desirable patterns of conduct.

Acquiring of Knowledge. The question as to how much definite knowledge should be taught in the various social studies is a difficult and serious one to answer. One of the chief aims set up in the teaching of these subjects has been the acquisition of facts. This aim dates back to the beginning of formal instruction. In the teaching of history and other social studies in this country, although at different times there has been a variety of aims, largely conditioned by the textbooks, the outstanding objective, whether admitted or not, has been the teaching of facts contained in those textbooks. In spite of professions to the contrary, this still remains true to a great degree, although many are coming to discern that there are other aims which, from many points of view, are more important even than the mastery of facts.

It should not be forgotten, however, that a certain amount of definite knowledge is essential to good citizenship. Exact knowledge and understanding contribute directly to social progress because they are necessary for clear thinking and reservation of judgment. The good citizen must acquire a certain amount of factual information, for without facts, thinking is impossible; and without thought, the many problems of modern civilization cannot be solved. Knowledge also can furnish a basis for sympathy and understanding, necessary to social intercourse and essential to social solidarity.

The futility of teaching a mass of unrelated facts, however, is being recognized by all progressive educators. Because of this, many attempts have been made recently to look at the teaching of history and the other social studies in very different manner from the way in which we have looked at them in the past. Historical movements, outstanding periods,

and the fundamental activities of mankind are being emphasized. Unitary plans are being developed in all subjects. Morrison's unit plan and similar plans are attempts to correlate knowledge in order to aid the pupil master his studies. These will be discussed in another chapter.

In the setting up of objectives of knowledge, certain information should be learned and not forgotten—such materials and data as are referred to every day. In history, for example, the contributions of Greece and Rome to our present civilization, the character of the bloody Nero or the sainted Francis of Assisi, such figures of the Renaissance as Leonardo da Vinci and Raphael, and the moral qualities of George Washington and Abraham Lincoln are constantly referred to by editors, lecturers, and public speakers. Such information should be mastered because of its range and frequent recurrence. Unfortunately, in all our history courses and in the other social studies as well, we are attempting to teach too much information. The result is that pupils are only half taught and the outstanding and important things are learned in a hazy way and often misunderstood. In many European countries, the facts of history that are taught in the schools are prescribed and limited by a government agency, France being a good example of such regulation. In our own country, encyclopedic textbooks published by rival publishing houses have dictated the course of study to a great degree and have brought about the peculiar situation, in which teachers attempt to teach the thousands of facts, many of them insignificant and unnecessary, that are found in such texts. A situation of this kind is only beginning to pass away.

The Development of Reasoning Power and Critical Judgment. Closely related to the acquisition of knowledge is the development of reasoning power. The psychology of reflective thinking may be briefly explained. The power of thinking and reasoning cannot be trained without the acquisition of facts. Not only are facts necessary for thinking and reasoning, but they must be so organized as to form clear associations. Thus, as a foundation for reasoning, a large number of associated facts is essential. For the solving of a new problem, old experiences must be brought to mind and the elements of the old situation be taken to meet the response of the new. A simple example of this may be seen in the problem, "What factors aided in the development of the West following the Civil War?" If the pupil has been taught the history of the period and has assimilated it, he will begin to think of the transcontinental railroads, the production of farm machinery, immigration, and conditions in the North and South during the reconstruction period. If purely mental processes are involved, this is reasoning. If, however, an accepted answer to the question has been taught to the pupils, no reasoning is involved, only memorization.

Judgment, also, must be based on facts. The social studies must be

the chief media for training pupils to render social judgments and to draw generalizations after sufficient and proper data have been gathered. When insufficient data only are available, the ability to make tentative generalizations without bias or prejudice is an extremely important part of the training of high-school pupils. Such abilities must be trained, in order that pupils may be able to render constructive judgments and decisions about social relations, affairs, and problems.

It is important in the development of reasoning power and judgment that the teacher take into account the age and mental ability of the pupils. Those in the seventh grade cannot use the facts for reasoning purposes as they will later use them in the twelfth grade. On the other hand, every teacher realizes the wide divergencies in the pupils of his classes. Those of high intelligence will generally be able to shape and reshape their array of facts in order to come to conclusions; the pupils of lesser ability will become lost in the facts and do no more than repeat some of them.

Training in Independent Study. One of the most important objectives that must be set up in the social studies is the ability to study independently. A method of study will remain long after most of the factual knowledge is forgotten. Training pupils to study cannot be done by simply asking or exhorting them to study. Nor can it be accomplished merely by admonishing the pupil to improve habits of study. The development of correct study habits on the part of the pupils must be considered by the teacher in the same manner as any other outcome of teaching. Time must be devoted to the best methods of study; practice in such methods must be given; and they must be made functional. In other words, much time, thought, and energy must be expended by the teacher. A technique of study must be built up by the pupil under the direction of the teacher. Sufficient drill in study methods must be given, as well as a gradual reduction of the guidance afforded the pupil as he progresses through the course. This must be done not only as an introduction to a course but definitely and systematically throughout the year. If this objective is accomplished, no matter how much or how little knowledge or information has been obtained from the course, a great deal has been achieved for the pupil. He has advanced in his intellectual life because he has acquired the ability to proceed independently in his studies, and this removes him from constant dependence upon the teacher.

The training, however, is not an end in itself. Most of the value lies in the use made of it after school days are over. If a pupil's reading deteriorates at the conclusion of his school experience, certainly he is not continuing in his effort to understand and appreciate the world in which he

lives. The objective of independent study involves the desire and choice of good reading and other experiences throughout life.

The Formation of Habits and Skills. In the social studies, habits and skills constitute an important part of the work. Habit has been defined as "a relatively simple acquired tendency to act, usually described in terms of outward conduct." It is needless to discuss the part played by habit in everyday life. The development of the habit of independent study has already been pointed out. Habits of accuracy, speed, and neatness can be set up as aims in many subjects, and the social studies can contribute greatly to such outcomes. It is not necessary to list here the numerous habits that can be trained through the social studies. They include a wide range, from the formation of the general habit of using reference and textbooks intelligently to the habit of controlling the emotions under extreme provocation.

Certain motor skills are peculiar to the social studies. A skill has been defined as "a complex of simple habits used with greater consciousness of the end in view." Such skills as the making of outlines, maps, charts, and graphs should constitute part of the instruction in the social studies. Among other skills that the teacher should aim to include are skills in the use of all types of books, including dictionaries, encyclopedias, guides, and atlases, as well as efficiency and independence in the use of libraries.

Training in Desirable Patterns of Conduct. The withdrawal of the family from efficient participation in the educational process and the fact that the church, in part, has failed to meet its opportunities in the development of character or desirable patterns of behavior leading to high ethical character have thrown much of this burden upon the schools. That the three agencies—home, church, and school—should cooperate in this respect is not to be questioned. The school should not be asked to bear the entire burden. Yet since ideals, attitudes, dispositions, interests, appreciations, and internal urges and drives are powerful influences and determinants of human behavior, it is necessary to develop desirable patterns of conduct and to aid in the building up of character in the lives of pupils in order to produce good citizens. Thus the school has an additional responsibility.

There has been an increasing demand on the part of churchmen during recent years that the school relinquish part of its time for religious instruction to be given by the churches. They have asserted that education in the schools is purely secular, whereas the great need today is for more religious training. As a result, many cities and towns have experimented with the project of allowing the churches to take pupils from the school for a period during the week, generally one hour, on school time for re-

ligious instruction. Some of these experiments are still being undertaken. Many of them have failed. One of the reasons for the failure is that the churches are not prepared for the task from the teaching point of view. It is also true that, in such a system, too much emphasis is placed on church doctrine and dogma and not enough on Christian principles and traits. Many churchmen also have failed to realize that Christian character may be molded in the public school under its own direction if conditions are favorable.

Character education in public schools, taught by direct or didactic methods, in the past has proved to be a failure. This is chiefly because the desire for a change in morals or the development of high ideals must come from within and must be consciously willed by the pupil, who furnishes his own power to achieve them. Thus most educators agree that ethical training should be indirect. The teacher of the social studies is in an excellent position to inculcate desirable patterns of behavior by virtue of the subject matter that he teaches and the methods that he may use. By example, stimulation, motivation, and sympathetic aid in the general procedures of the classroom, the teacher can aid in the building of character. The teacher himself must at all times exhibit self-control, patience, sympathy, and self-respect if he wishes to secure favorable results.

There is no definite agreement as to what constitutes the elements of character, and certainly no authoritative lists have been worked out for the different levels of maturity. There is general accord, however, on certain fundamental ideals, attitudes, interests, and appreciations essential for high character. The background of our culture and civilization is responsible for a knowledge of right and wrong and for agreement upon certain virtues. The normal American understands such words as honor, chivalry, and charity, whether they function in his life or not. Such ideals, attitudes, and virtues should form a basis for the work of the teacher.

The power of ideals in character training is not to be minimized. The power of ideals, good and bad, can be seen in the lives and achievements of the characters of history. Alexander, Charlemagne, and Napoleon had certain ideals that led them to great material achievements. Augustine, Benedict, St. Francis, Savonarola, and Luther are remembered because of their spiritual ideals. The inculcation of high ideals and civic standards is essential in preparing pupils to take their places in a democratic society.

The development of attitudes is important because they are extremely significant factors of behavior. Desirable attitudes are based upon desirable standards of value—upon an appreciation of what things are worthwhile in life. Attitudes depend upon intellectual and emotional factors. Thus the scientific attitude is intellectual because it is a method of

forming judgments on facts, unbiased by personal feeling; but such an attitude as prejudice against Negroes is largely emotional in its nature. Such traits as bad temper, sulkiness, rudeness, disobedience, jealousy, laziness, and stubbornness are due in large measure to wrong attitudes. Most attitudes, whether good or bad, are a combination of intellectual and emotional feelings. The teacher has the opportunity and worthy duty of aiding pupils to build up right attitudes. Social-mindedness is one of the most important of these that should result from the teaching of the social studies. Such an attitude should bring about in the pupil the desire to have a part in creating a better world.

The difficulties of the task of training pupils to build up right attitudes must not be underemphasized. To meet individual differences, such factors as age levels, mental levels, physical development, social conditions, and emotional reactions must be considered. These require definite and specific diagnosis and prescription. With our limited knowledge and means at the present time, the problem cannot be attacked in a scientific way. Much experimentation is now taking place in this direction, and there is much hope for tangible results in the future. In the meantime, the teacher must aid in developing broad attitudes in the class as a whole by precept, example, and enthusiasm. Attitudes of scientific-mindedness, of loyalty, of truthfulness, of tolerance, of cooperation, of civic gratitude, and above all, of intelligent optimism are among the right attitudes that the teacher of the social studies must seek at every opportunity to develop in his pupils.

Appreciations must also be cultivated if the pupil is to become a well-rounded citizen in a growing democracy. Appreciations of the opportunities afforded in the group, the community, the nation, and the world must be included. Such appreciations are lacking among the majority of pupils at the present time. One illustration will suffice. Pupils accept the training that they are receiving in high school as a heritage that is rightfully theirs. Perhaps it is, but the older generation can look back to the time when relatively few received such an advantage. It has been partly due to the ideal of the older generation—although they did not receive a good education, their children should be given the best possible training—that the present rising generation is receiving great educational opportunities. Truly the pupils of the present day should appreciate their educational advantages and, above all, the opportunity that is theirs of becoming substantial, faithful, and law-abiding citizens in society.

Although it is the duty of the school to do much in the development of desirable patterns of conduct and in the building of the characters of pupils, such work has been largely neglected because of the intangibility of the elements that enter into patterns of conduct and the difficulty of

measuring or testing these elements. Good citizenship, high ideals, honest service, and various forms of conduct cannot be measured mathematically. The attempt to assign mathematical values to elements of character and conduct is meaningless. Nevertheless, these elements are real, and it is one of the most important duties of the school to expend its energies and resources in discovering and perfecting means that will result in the development of desirable patterns of conduct.

Specific Aims of the Various Social Studies

History. In accord with the aims that may be set up for the social studies in general, it is necessary to note the objectives of each of them in particular. Taking history first, the question arises as to what definite contributions the study can make to the mental and moral qualities of pupils. These qualities, rightly developed, constitute the basis of the best type of citizenship. The desirable outcomes are as follows: (1) the accumulation of certain definite knowledge of the past, wisely chosen, to explain the present in accord with the general aims of secondary education; (2) the development of abilities needed for impartial and effective investigation of social materials and for rendering constructive judgments and decisions about social affairs; (3) the understanding of such fundamental principles as the continuity of history, that the life of man and society is dynamic or a process of ceaseless change, and that the increasing complexity and interdependence of human relations involve many problems and the solutions to these problems; (4) the attainment of noble ideals and high concepts of loyalty to one's self and to one's fellow men by teaching the cost of the elements of civilization during the past; (5) the inculcation of attitudes of historical-mindedness and scientific-mindedness, and such other attitudes as will aid in training for citizenship; (6) the development of cultural interests, such as a taste for reading various phases of history, a discriminating interest in art galleries and museums, and an interest in travel.

Civics. The outstanding purpose of instruction in civics is to produce better citizens and to aid pupils in the formation of a higher type of civic character. For the achievement of this objective, the pupils should receive a well-grounded knowledge of the machinery and functions of all the various governmental agencies—local, state, and federal. Such knowledge is absolutely necessary for a young citizen to understand and, later, to use when he participates effectively in government. But a knowledge about government is not enough. Many courses in civics are failures because attention is centered on government and not on the elements of community welfare, for which government exists. In addition to government, the aim to promote civic ideals, attitudes, and habits that will oper-

ate in the lives of the pupils is important. Pupils should also be encouraged in independent thinking and in making impartial judgments in civic affairs, on the basis of sufficient data, and not on bias, prejudice, or emotion.

For a greater realization of the educational possibilities of civics, certain specific aims should be used from time to time as the opportunity is afforded by conditions and subject matter. To get pupils to view in a right way certain pressing civic problems, in order that they may do their part in solving these problems, should constitute an outstanding objective. Such problems as the indifference of so large a number of citizens toward their obligations as voters, the narrow provincial attitude of looking at all issues in terms of local interest instead of the broader national view, the tendency toward religious and racial prejudice which is still prevalent, the sensationalizing of crime and scandal by many of our newspapers, and the tendency to regard democracy as already achieved instead of looking at it as a great experiment, are a few of the problems that the teacher of civics must present to his pupils for discussion, thought, and possible solution.

Economics. If economics is the "science which deals with the social system of wealth," the value of its study can readily be perceived, since so many of our public problems are economic in character. The aim of secondary-school economics should be to teach modern economic principles by observation and through an understanding of current practices. Pupils should be trained to apply sound economic theory to everyday life. Of the economic problems of the present day, those connected with industry, the tariff, taxation, the expense of government, and the cost of living are but a few of the many that the citizen has to face continually. A thorough appreciation of these problems and a clear insight by the pupil into the social and economic environment are aims that, when achieved, are worth while and contribute largely to the main aims of education.

Sociology. The chief aim of sociology in the secondary school should be to develop in pupils the conviction that social phenomena are natural phenomena and therefore should be studied in a scientific way. Too much attention has been paid in high-school courses in sociology to the pathological aspects of society. The pupil has been taught the abnormal and subnormal aspects of society, instead of the normal social life of his community and country. This often results in a distorted view of society and of the study of the subject. Sociology is not primarily concerned with the morbid and sordid aspects of society but includes all phases of social phenomena.

The chief aim, then, in the study of sociology should not consist in memorizing a number of facts, knowing all about the ills of society, learn-

ing mechanical rules or even a number of principles. It should be the development of a way of thinking about social data and social phenomena. The local community should be the starting point to a scientific understanding of the fundamentals of social organization. If this aim is achieved, it will aid in fitting the pupil for effective participation in the activities of his community, the state, the nation, and the world. Such a course should articulate well with history, civics, economics, and problems of democracy in the training of intelligent citizens.

Problems of Democracy. The aims for this subject should include an understanding by the pupil of outstanding present-day problems—social, economic, and political—in order that he may discover why these problems exist and consider means for solving them. The theory back of this course is that each problem is not entirely historical, economic, or political but draws from many fields. It is also maintained that the individual in life faces questions to be solved, not distinct studies or sciences. Many educators, therefore, consider the course a laboratory course in social science. The various social studies contribute the facts and principles that throw light on these problems and provide the materials for attempts to solve them. Since this course draws from the other social studies for the study of the problems that confront American democracy, there is much overlapping on other courses in the field, not only in the materials of instruction, but also to some extent in regard to the aims and objectives of the course.

Current Events. The major aims in the study of current events may be found in the reasons for its entrance into the secondary-school curriculum. The ignorance of the American people regarding current issues, both national and international, led many to consider the school as failing in one of its major objectives. The chief aim of the subject, then, is to enable pupils to realize and understand the major problems and events of the world in which they live. It is the aim of the educator that the pupil shall develop an interest in the events of the present-day world, so that, after school days are over, he will have an intelligent desire to learn all about these occurrences and keep well informed. For this reason, the use of newspapers and magazines for the study of the subject is imperative. This discussion has been concerned with current events as a separate subject, but teachers should constantly make use of the events of the present in the teaching of history and the other social studies, in order to vitalize their teaching.

Geography. It was indicated in the first chapter that the point of view of the geography taught in the school today centers in the study of the relationships between man and his environment. The aims for the

subject should lead to an understanding and appreciation of how people live and work; how the environment affects their lives, ideas, and customs; and how those in one region affect those of another. The study should promote a better understanding among individuals, groups, and the nations of the world. The development of skills necessary to sound geographic thinking and needed for an understanding of social data should also play a part in the specific aims of geography.

Core Program. Many schools have recently introduced the core program. Educators differ as to the meaning of the core, but all emphasize material that will help the pupil in his daily living. In some schools the core has been a fusion or a correlated course. In others it has been made up of the problems that pupils face or that they will face in the future. The main aim of the course is to help the pupil solve such problems, social or civic, as he is meeting or will meet in the future.

The Social-studies Teacher and Aims

From the preceding discussion of aims and objectives it is evident that the teacher's task is a difficult one. Unfortunately, many educators who have worked on aims and objectives have tended to ignore or minimize the part played by the teacher. For example, the preceding discussion has indicated that pupils must acquire knowledge. The field, however, is large and the teacher must guide and direct so that the pupil will not become confused. The determining of what should be taught and what should be omitted is a matter of importance. In order to decide this, the teacher himself must be well grounded in the subject he teaches. The key to the successful attainment of aims is in the hands of the teacher; but if he himself does not understand which knowledge is of most worth in reaching the goals, the outlining of aims loses much of its meaning. However, the acquiring of knowledge is only the means to an end. ✓

Intellectual development goes beyond knowledge. The teacher must train pupils so that they develop reason and judgment, that they may proceed to independent methods of study, and that they may develop skills and habits. This again shows the need of the well-trained, efficient teacher. Even this is not enough, for aims are concerned also with the attitudes and behavior of the pupils. In order to attain these aims, the teacher himself must possess the important traits and be an example to those he leads. If civic responsibility is to be taught to the pupil, it is best seen in the life of the teacher. The aims cannot rise above the teacher, for it is he in the school who has most to do with training pupils to take their places as citizens in the school, the home, and the community, and to be ready for the larger citizenship of the future.

Summary

Aims and objectives in education may be traced from earliest times. In American secondary education, aims and objectives were outlined from the time of the Latin grammar school, the academy, the early high school, down to the present system. With the growing secondary-school enrollment during the twentieth century, aims and objectives have greatly changed. Since the seven cardinal principles in secondary education were set up in 1918, many committees have outlined aims for general education. The social-studies aims must be formulated in light of the general aims. Each of them must contribute to that end. However, the social studies because of their subject matter and methods may be used to contribute greatly to the objectives of education.

The aims of the social studies include the teaching of a certain amount of knowledge, the development of reasoning power and critical judgment, training in independent study, the formation of habits and skills, and the molding of desirable patterns of conduct. Each of the social studies has its own contribution to make. It should be evident that there is little use in setting up aims and objectives unless definite and systematic plans are made for achieving them. The importance of the teacher in attaining the goals of education must be recognized, for he is the one upon whose shoulders most of the burden rests.

Questions

1. Trace the changes in the aims and objectives of American education since the days of the earliest settlements.
2. Why must the aims and objectives of education be subject to constant change?
3. Why have the cardinal principles of secondary education received general acceptance?
4. Compare the Harvard Report with the volume, *Education for All American Youth*, of the Educational Policies Commission.
5. List the general aims of the social studies in the program of American education.
6. Analyze the general factors that make up desirable patterns of conduct.
7. What is the relationship of knowledge to attitudes and ideals?
8. What part should the school play in the development of character? How can this best be accomplished?
9. Compare the specific aims of the various social studies.
10. Indicate the importance of the teacher in formulating aims and objectives.
11. What is the chief function of secondary education?

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CHAPTER III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF METHODS OF TEACHING

The Importance of Method

During recent years there has been much discussion and debate among teachers, educators, and others as to whether or not the mastery of subject matter of the various social studies by the teacher is more important than the understanding and command of various methods of teaching them. In the heat of the argument, many have gone to extremes. Some have asserted that subject matter is all-important and that teachers who are well trained in their subjects will have no difficulty in devising means, methods, and plans for teaching them. Others insist that method must be firmly mastered, since deficiencies in the knowledge of subject matter can and must be overcome by independent study. The common-sense view of looking at the controversy is to consider the values of both opinions. If teaching is to reach its highest degree of efficiency, it is evident that teachers must be thoroughly trained in the materials of instruction in their fields and must also possess a broad understanding of all phases of method—including psychology—as a part of that philosophy of education which is essential to good teaching.

Teachers constantly feel the need for a better mastery of teaching methods. However, the changing conditions of American education have from time to time brought new fads in teaching procedures, which have been given much publicity, only to disappear when the craze was over; but they have often left the conscientious teacher oppressed with a sense of futility. On the other hand, there are many excellent methods of teaching which are necessary for the achievement of the objectives of the social studies; but they must be chosen and used in the light of the general objectives of education, the materials of instruction, and the ability of the pupils. Methodology should be conceived as a dynamic function of education and not as a static aspect of the process of teaching.

Owing to the development of methods of instruction and their importance at the present time in educational theory and practice, it is essential that the teacher who is to achieve success should make a careful study of this phase of educational thought. The method or methods,

including classroom procedures, that a teacher uses from day to day determine to a great extent his success or failure. Consequently, he must know about the origin and development of method, in order to understand this branch of modern educational philosophy and also to evaluate critically and use wisely the various methods employed by successful teachers today.

The Origin of Modern Methods

The origin of modern methodology may be traced to the theories of Jean Jacques Rousseau. Many writers and educational reformers who lived earlier than Rousseau opposed the methods of instruction in their day and suggested better principles of teaching, but without any tangible results. Johann Amos Comenius, who lived in the seventeenth century, was an outstanding example. Comenius believed that all instruction should be carefully graded and arranged in a natural order. He advocated that the teacher, in his methods, should appeal through sense perception to the understanding of the child. He set forth his educational principles in his *Great Didactic*. The work of Comenius, however, like that of other educators of his time, was buried beneath the sea of religious controversy and bigotry of his age. It was not until Rousseau wrote his *Emile* that ideas of improved methods took root and the foundations of methodology were laid. Rousseau provided some of the ideas, but others worked them out and put them into practice.

During the latter half of the eighteenth century, Rousseau, who was chiefly a political theorist, wrote against the wasteful, unpedagogical, and rigid disciplinary practices of the education of his period. Although impelled in his writings by the malevolent impulse that, if he rejected everything that his debased age accepted, he would reach truth, this impractical dreamer pointed the way to improved educational methods and practices. Amid generalities and paradoxes, Rousseau set forth in his educational works certain ideas that, in the hands of others, brought about great educational changes. As his *Social Contract* exerted much influence over the French revolutionists, so his *Emile* became the inspiration of forward-looking and progressive educators.

It is true that Rousseau borrowed many ideas from John Locke, the English philosopher, who did much in laying the basis for modern scientific psychology, which, in time, superseded the philosophical psychology of Plato and Aristotle. Locke sought to discover the origin, certainty, and extent of human knowledge and applied the methods of scientific observation to the study of the mind, in addition to using introspection and comparative mental study. He denied the existence of innate ideas and principles. He held that all knowledge comes from ex-

perience and that the mind is like white paper upon which ideas can be impressed by sensation and reflection. This was the doctrine of the *tabula rasa*, which in its elementary form can be traced back to Aristotle.¹ Locke also did much to advocate the training of the mind by means of certain subjects in order to cultivate "general power," a theory that played a very important part in education during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The emotional and impulsive Rousseau developed many of Locke's ideas in accord with his own ideas of naturalism. He aimed to replace the conventional and formal education of his day with a training that should be free, natural, and spontaneous. In his chief educational work *Emile*, Rousseau begins with his accepted principle: "Everything is good as it comes from the hands of the Author of Nature; but everything degenerates in the hands of men." He points out that there are three great teachers, "nature, man and things." Since we have no control over nature, we must direct the other two in the educational processes, and therefore all education must conform to nature.

The Work and Influence of Pestalozzi

Many were influenced by Locke's philosophy and psychology, but more were stimulated by Rousseau's educational ideas. Among these was Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, of German-Swiss parentage, who was born and brought up in the city of Zurich. He spent most of his life working out a theory and method of instruction in accord with the natural development of the child. Pestalozzi's great work was carried out in Switzerland between the years 1800 and 1825, where his school was visited by observers and students from various parts of Europe and America. Starting with Rousseau's idea of a return to nature and basing his theories on the idea that sense impression was the only true foundation of human knowledge, he worked out the concept that the mental development of human beings was organic and proceeded according to law. He declared that education was a drawing-out process and not a pouring-in process, that the basis of all education lay in the nature of the individual, and that methods of instruction must be sought and constructed to that end.

He attempted to "psychologize instruction," that is, according to his own statements, he tried to harmonize instruction with the law of intellectual development. His theories included a simplification of the elements of knowledge and their reduction to a series of exercises, scientifically graded for all classes, in order to provide the proper physical, mental, and moral development. He planned to mechanize methods and teaching processes, so that there would be a regular A, B, C for each

¹ JOHN LOCKE, *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (Oxford, 1894), Book I.

type of instruction, which when learned would give perfection to a teacher and finality to his teaching. To Pestalozzi, education was "the natural, progressive, and harmonious development of all the powers and capacities of the human being."

The work of Pestalozzi was not scientific or entirely practical, yet it had a profound influence. Pestalozzi's faith in the power of education to regenerate society had effects in western Europe and later in the United States in demonstrating how orphans and defectives could be aided by giving them an intellectual and industrial training. Observation and investigation came to receive emphasis in education; class discussion was given attention; and the elementary school was reorganized on the basis of classwork and group instruction. Modern methods of elementary training had their beginning at this time, and a new conception of the school as an instrument of society to train future citizens arose.

The ideas of Pestalozzi began to appear in the United States early in the nineteenth century. They were introduced directly from the original centers in Switzerland and indirectly from forms that Pestalozzianism had assumed in Germany, France, England, and other countries. Many articles were written and published in American educational journals. As a result, the ideas and practices of Pestalozzi spread rapidly in this country. During the third quarter of the nineteenth century, they had a prevailing influence, though somewhat formalized, upon elementary education.

The new ideas of Pestalozzi changed methods of instruction in the elementary schools of Europe and of America. The old method of memorizing material found in primer or text was severely attacked. The idea that the duty of the teacher was to hear recitations, test memory, keep order, and administer discipline was challenged. The new conception of slow, individual development demanded subject matter and method suited to the pupil's stage of development. The results were many. A science of teaching arose; methodology became an important field; pedagogy began to take form; and psychology, although still very elementary, became a guide. Normal schools for the training of teachers developed in European countries and later in the United States. Pestalozzi himself conducted in Europe a secular teacher-training institution. Strange as it may seem, however, Pestalozzianism exerted little influence over methods of teaching in the secondary schools of this country.

Careful analysis of the ideas of Pestalozzi shows that they were based upon sympathetic insight rather than upon scientific principles, in spite of the fact that he was influenced by the rising scientific movement of his time. It was left for his disciples and followers, Friedrich Wilhelm August Froebel and Johann Friedrich Herbart, to develop elaborate sys-

tems of education. The work of Froebel dealt largely with the kindergarten and therefore will not be discussed here. Before taking up the contributions of Herbart, it may be well to consider the methods used in American secondary schools from their origin, because it was not until the Herbartian theories penetrated them that any great changes were made in method. The theories of Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and others did not have much influence on method in the secondary schools of this country until the last decade of the nineteenth century, when Herbartian influence cast a flood of light on existing methods; and the upheaval that followed has not yet subsided, for it stimulated the more recent movements that have developed in the field of education.

Study and Method in Early American Schools

The first secondary schools in the American colonies were of the Latin-grammar-school type, patterned after such schools in the mother country. The origin of the Latin grammar school can be traced to the latter part of the Middle Ages. Latin was naturally the medium of instruction during the medieval period because it was the language of the church, of the university, and of legal procedure and was necessary for travel and communication. In the introduction of a manuscript text used in the schools of Europe from the twelfth to the fifteenth centuries, Latin grammar was defined as "the doorkeeper of all the other sciences, the apt expurgatrix of the stammering tongue, the servant of logic, the mistress of rhetoric, the interpreter of theology, the relief of medicine, and the praiseworthy foundation of the whole quadrivium."² Much stress therefore was placed on the study of Latin and also on Latin grammar. The general method of teaching was that of question and answer. Since manuscript books and textbooks were scarce, the teacher frequently dictated passages, which the pupils wrote down and committed to memory.

Toward the close of the Middle Ages, owing to the weakening of feudalism, the growth of national spirit, the discovery of the old classics, and the rise of humanism in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the medieval curriculum was transformed and new forms of teaching came into use. The court schools and other schools that arose adopted the new learning. Also, in the grammar schools, pure Latin and Greek took the place of monkish Latin; and the old classics of Rome and Greece, brought into prominence again with the rise of the movement known as the Renaissance, found an important place in the schools. The introduction of printing about this time resulted in many improved textbooks, and

² ALEXANDER DE VILLA DIE, *Doctrinale*. Quoted in E. P. Cubberley, *The History of Education* (Boston, 1920), p. 155.

the days of enslavement to scarce manuscript texts were over. With the introduction of paper, which displaced parchment, written themes gradually took the place of disputation. But the vehicle of the new instruction was still Latin, now once again made a vital and living language. Greek also was studied in the schools to some extent.

During the sixteenth century, the new learning became narrow and formal. The classics were no longer used to impart a liberal education preparatory to useful public service, but they came to be used largely for disciplinary ends. The literature of ancient Greece and Rome was no longer interpreted in terms of life. The aim of education became chiefly a mastery of the classics in regard to form rather than to content. In the grammar schools, much of the time was devoted to the drill of inflecting, parsing, and analyzing. Grammatical drill was emphasized. Understanding was neglected, and the study of the humanities became fixed and was made an end in itself.

Latin remained the chief subject in European secondary schools, because its difficulty was considered to be the best means for disciplining the mind. As a result of this generally accepted theory, Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek and mathematics were firmly entrenched within the curriculum of European secondary schools at the time when the first English settlements were made in America.

The American Latin grammar schools were largely dominated by ecclesiastical motive and influence and had for their main aim the preparation of students for the universities, which trained scholarly leaders, especially for church and state. Before the colonial period ended, a rival secondary school appeared. The academy developed, partly because of the need and demand for the inclusion of practical subjects in the curriculum, such as merchants' accounts, navigation, surveying, and higher mathematics. The general aims of the early academy were to prepare for life and to give a liberal education. Girls as well as boys were admitted and, in time, separate schools for girls were organized. At first the practical subjects received emphasis in these academies, but not long after the opening of the nineteenth century the narrow classical course of the Latin grammar school was added, in order to train students to meet college-entrance requirements. The academies developed a dual purpose—preparation for life and preparation for college. This resulted in two distinct courses, the English course and the classical course. The American public high school, originating in 1821 in Boston, aimed at first to impart knowledge and give a "finishing" course preparatory to mercantile and mechanical pursuits. Gradually, the high school superseded the academy just as the academy had triumphed over the Latin grammar

school. Later, like the academy, it was forced to consider the question of college-entrance requirements, a problem that still remains vexatious to some extent.

In all types of secondary schools throughout the eighteenth century and during most of the nineteenth century, the method of teaching was in accord with a philosophy of education that emphasized mental discipline and "faculty psychology." Based in general upon old Aristotelian principles, this theory conceived the mind as a number of broad faculties or mental powers, each separate and distinct from the others. The schools existed to train these faculties of memory, retention, reasoning, perception, and attention. The rote, or *memoriter*, method, therefore, was widely practiced and became so formalized that mere memorization of subject matter was the chief end of education, and little or no attention was given to comprehension or understanding. During the eighteenth century, history was rarely found in the curriculum of the Latin grammar school; but with the development of the academies and the public high school, it became established as a school subject. The method used was to insist that historical material be "firmly fixed in the memory." The *memoriter* method persisted in many places in this country, even after the opening of the twentieth century.

The Effects of Herbartian Ideas

A change in educational theory and philosophy, which had its beginning in the United States just before the last decade of the nineteenth century, revolutionized the old ideas of method in the secondary schools. By 1890, the Herbartian philosophy of education was introduced into this country from Europe and did much to discourage belief in the doctrines of formal discipline and "faculty psychology." Herbart conceived the mind as a unit and not as a number of faculties. Although he recognized the potency of interest as a factor in the learning process and advocated the adaptation of instruction to fit the needs and capacities of the child, his greatest emphasis was placed on the teacher. The five formal Herbartian steps, which are discussed in another chapter, approach the problem of education largely from the viewpoint of the teacher, not of the pupil.

The effect of Herbartianism upon education, both elementary and secondary, was beneficial. The concept that the outcome of education was not the strengthening of the mental faculties but rather the building up of an "apperceptive mass" of ideas was revolutionary. Herbart condemned the rote method and stressed comprehension and association. He believed that the education of the mind was wholly a matter of the presentation of the proper education materials. His philosophy was an improvement over

the old "faculty-psychology" idea of training and prepared the way for recent theories of education.

Herbartian theory and practice became popular in Germany between 1865 and 1885. Under the leadership of T. Ziller and William Rein, Jena became a center of Herbartian teaching. Teachers and students from many lands studied there. By 1890, the new theories were brought to America, where they received an almost general acceptance. As was the case with Pestalozzianism, the influence was first felt in the elementary schools; but in a very short time, Herbartian theories and principles were applied to teaching in the secondary schools.

The decade in which Herbartian philosophy first took root in the United States was one of investigation and activity along all educational lines. Committees of learned societies and organizations, especially the National Education Association and the American Historical Association, were appointed, and various educational agencies were established. Investigations, reports, and discussions brought out current practices and methods of teaching and laid the foundations for improvement in the future.

An exceedingly important educational report was that of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, made in 1893.³ The work of the Committee was accomplished through nine conferences. The Conference on History, Civil Government and Political Economy met at Madison, Wisconsin, in December, 1892.⁴ A recommendation was made that history be taught for eight consecutive years in the schools—four in the elementary school and four in the secondary school, as follows:

1st and 2d years. (Grades, five and six) Biography and mythology. 3d year. (Grade seven) American history; and elements of civil government. 4th year. (Grade eight) Greek and Roman history, with their Oriental connections. 5th year. (Grade nine) French history. To be so taught as to elucidate the general movement of mediaeval and modern history. 6th year. (Grade ten) English history. To be so taught as to elucidate the general movement of mediaeval and modern history. 7th year. (Grade eleven) American history. 8th year. (Grade twelve) A special period, studied in an intensive manner; and civil government.

For schools not able to adopt this program, the following was suggested:

1st and 2d years. (Grades six and seven) Biography and mythology. 3d year. (Grade eight) American history and civil government. 4th year. (Grade nine) Greek and Roman history, with their Oriental connections. 5th year. (Grade ten) English history. To be so taught as to elucidate the general movement of

³ *Report of the Committee [of Ten] on Secondary School Studies*, National Education Association (Washington, 1893).

⁴ The resolutions and conclusions of the Madison Conference form a part of the *Report of the Committee of Ten*; see pp. 162-203 of the *Report*.

mediaeval and modern history. 6th year. (Grade eleven or twelve) American history and civil government.

The Conference recommended that no formal instruction in political economy be given in secondary schools, but that a knowledge and understanding of our economic life and development be taught, especially in connection with the teaching of United States history, civil government, and commercial geography.

The Conference reported that it had found methods of teaching deplorable in both elementary and secondary schools. In the latter, the recitation based upon a textbook was the method in general use, and textbooks were frequently poor and antiquated. In some high schools and academies, outside reading, oral topics, written exercises, and map work were included in instruction, but methods and procedures, generally, were based "on a few brief textbooks." The Conference recommended that teachers be better trained "in books, methods, lines of thought, and interest"; that for the first two years, oral instruction be given in biography and mythology; that after the first two years, suitable textbooks be used, but only as a basis for teaching facts and the sequence of events, to be supplemented by other methods; that more than one textbook be used; that the topical method be stressed; that the subjects of English and history be correlated as far as possible; that pupils be taught to discriminate between original sources and secondary works in the last years of the secondary school; that written work include notebooks, reports, and the study of source material; and that reference books be provided by all schools to the extent of their ability. The work of the Committee as a whole was in regard to administration, especially the time allotment and limits of the various subjects, college-entrance requirements, and the articulation of secondary-school and college work. Method was therefore of secondary importance to the Committee. What was mentioned about method in the report of the Madison Conference on History, Civil Government and Political Economy contained nothing original, being merely statements of existing practices in a few progressive schools, which it was hoped would become general. Yet through the publicity given to better methods of teaching, the influence of the report was great. Also, for the first time, a complete program in history for the schools of this country was mapped out and recommended.

Another outstanding report of the period of the nineties was that of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, which reported in 1898.⁵ After considering systems and methods of instruction in European schools as well as programs and methods in our own country, the Committee recommended the following four-year course in history:

⁵ *The Study of History in Schools* (New York, 1899).

First year. Ancient History to 800 A.D. Second year. Mediaeval and Modern European History. Third year. English history. Fourth year. American history and Civil Government.

A three-year course in history was also suggested.

The report of the Committee of Seven showed that, as far as method was concerned, improvement had been made in the schools as a whole since the report of the Committee of Ten in 1893. Undoubtedly the recommendations of the Madison Conference had an influence in bringing this about. In its report, the Committee of Seven showed that good schools in all parts of the country had adopted substantially similar methods of instruction and that the old rote system was beginning to crumble. The Committee found that material outside the textbook was required in a large number of schools and that many recognized the necessity of a library for doing efficient work. Teachers assigned topics for investigation by the pupil, and a variety of written work was undertaken. It was pointed out that the textbooks used in teaching history contained an insufficient amount of reading material but that the old-fashioned texts were disappearing.

In its recommendations, the Committee suggested that textbooks be used in the teaching of history in all secondary schools, in order to give coherence to the work. It advised the use of collateral and supplementary reading, written work, and other teaching aids, such as notebooks and maps. It questioned the employment of the source method in secondary schools—a method developed during the last two decades of the century, devoted largely to the use of the limited amount of printed source material for classroom purposes—which at that time had a grip on many schools in New England. The committee stated that it regarded “sources as adjuncts to good textbook work, as something which may be used for a part of the collateral reading and may also form the basis of some of the written work.” In other respects, the report in many ways was similar to the earlier one of the Committee of Ten.

The influence of Herbartian philosophy can easily be seen in the reports of these two committees. The same is true of the reports of various other committees that made investigations and reported during this period. During the years that followed the educational activities of the nineties, there was much improvement in methods of teaching history in the secondary schools of this country, although attention was called from time to time to the inadequacy of historical equipment in most schools. The *memoriter* method fell into disrepute, in theory at least; comprehension was stressed; programs were worked out in accord with the recommendations of the committees; the necessity for giving teachers an adequate training was emphasized; the importance of very carefully

selecting teachers was given a certain amount of consideration; and attempts were made to adapt the subject matter to the interests, tastes, and abilities of the pupil. The period of Herbartian influence, on the whole, was a transitional one. It prepared the way for newer and better concepts of education.

The Rise of the Modern Philosophy of Education

By 1910, Herbartianism as a system of education was quite generally criticized. The emphasis upon the teacher and upon formal procedure, especially, was opposed. A new conception of learning was arising, based upon a new psychology and founded upon scientific procedure. Back of this movement lay the work of the reformers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The work of Locke, Rousseau, Basedow, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbart, Spencer, Huxley, and others, in their efforts to improve the ideals, organization, content, and methods of education, laid the basis of the psychological, sociological, and scientific movements of modern education. Upon this foundation and in accord with our modern knowledge of society, a new educational philosophy is being developed.

According to this new educational philosophy, learning is an active process. Herbartianism stressed the teacher; the new philosophy emphasizes the pupil. Learning does not consist in training the "faculties" of the mind or in the mere acquisition of an "apperceptive mass" of ideas but is a constant process of reorganizing and reconstructing experience. Education, then, is an active rather than a passive process. The school not only is a preparation for later life but must be regarded as life itself:

When the school introduces and trains each child of society into membership within such a little community, saturating him with the spirit of service, and providing him with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guarantee of a larger society which is worthy, lovely, and harmonious.⁶

The activities of the school, then, must be socialized in order that they may reproduce real-life situations. The interests of the pupils individually and collectively must also be considered. Although generally accepted, many of the new concepts have been criticized, especially the emphasis on the pupil, from the point of view of the nature and needs of society.

The present emphasis on the individual in educational thought and practice, which has been largely the result of educational psychology during the past thirty years, has been challenged by many educational sociologists. Their point of view is that all individuals, regardless of mental capacity, must be first socialized, and that all social situations must be

⁶ JOHN DEWEY, *The School and Society* (Chicago, 1922), pp. 27-28.

utilized to this end, in order to avoid the possibility that superior intellect and training will be used against and not for society. They object to a philosophy of education that advocates, first, the development of the individuality of pupils and, secondly, the training of cooperation and social attitudes and ideals. They insist that the group must be socialized first and that the thinking of the individuals in the group be given a collectivist cast. The brighter pupils must then be recognized and trained for leadership. According to the educational sociologist, unless the individual is first socialized, the final product of education can result only in a more efficient selfishness, and the pupil will not be trained adequately to take his place in society. In fact, he may be trained to become an enemy of society.

The fundamental problem in any philosophy of education is whether the individual or the group is to be considered the center of gravity. Exaggerated individualism is a by-product of democracy. According to theory, every individual, regardless of intelligence, training, or ability, may exercise his judgment independently of the accumulated experience of the group. There are evidences, however, that the theory of rugged individualism is beginning to give way to social control, and much is being said about collectivism. The economic and social problems of the past few years and the attempts made to solve them constitute an excellent example of this trend toward social control. Our philosophy of education is gradually being modified to accord with present social trends, although there is still a lag.

It is true that our social order today is suffering from an excess of individualism. One does not have to search far among youth for the spirit of "everyone for himself and the devil take the hindmost." How much of this is due to our school philosophy and practice may be a question. Undoubtedly, the need for social cooperation today demands that the school emphasize the social values. If we turn out pupils from the schools with an antisocial philosophy, we have failed society. This does not mean that the individual is unimportant but that he should be developed only in harmony with the higher social concepts.

Emphasis during recent years has been on individual instruction in the classroom, but the socialization of the individual must not be neglected. Almost all our modern methods and procedures can be used to promote both. In the pages that follow, it will be shown that socialization can be used in connection with individual development. It is essential that, in the training of citizens, the teacher consider both continually. The development of the individual capacities of the pupil must continue to play an important part in education, but the socialization of the pupil is just as important, for, if society is to function in an intelligent manner,

there must be a considerable homogeneity of thought, feeling, and habit in the group.

In discussing the nature and functions of the social sciences in relation to education, the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association in 1934 reached the conclusion that "In the United States as in other countries, the age of individualism and laissez-faire in economy and government is closing and a new age of collectivism is emerging." ⁷ According to the Commission, the specific form that this collectivism is taking is not yet clear. The necessity of recognizing the emergence of a new order is stressed, as well as the desirability of curbing individualism; but the Commission recommends the use of every practicable means "to ward off the dangers of goose-step regimentation in ideas, culture and invention, of sacrificing individuality, of neglecting precious elements in the traditional heritage of America and the world, and of fostering a narrow intolerant nationalism or an aggressive predatory imperialism." This is essential in order to secure "the reservation to the individual of the largest possible measure of freedom in the realms of personal and cultural growth and the preservation of individuality in its non-acquisitive expressions as the finest flower of civilized society." ⁸ The present situation, therefore, calls for new opportunities in education offered to children and youth, for gifted teachers with understanding and a broad training, and for school administrators who are social statesmen. Method of teaching is defined by the Commission as "a rational ordering and balancing in the light of knowledge and purpose, of the several elements that enter into the educative process—the nature of the pupil, the materials of instruction, and the total learning situation." ⁹ The report well sets forth the fact that method cannot be separated from subject matter or aims.

Present-day Philosophy and Methods of Instruction

The effect of recent educational philosophy upon the methods of teaching has been revolutionary. The central place in the school, in theory at least, has been given to the pupil. The teacher cannot substitute his activity for that of the pupil in the learning process. Any process that is not

⁷ American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations*, p. 16. This volume of the report has received much praise and severe criticism. Most of the criticism has centered in the "frame of reference," which includes the social philosophy of a new society founded upon economic collectivism and cultural individualism. This the Commission proposes to promote through the teaching of the social studies.

⁸ American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations*, pp. 22–23.

⁹ American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations*, p. 68.

based upon the "pupil-activity" conception is not in accord with these recent educational theories.

The trend in method is always away from rigid formalism in teaching procedures. Education should be natural and informal. In the social studies, even more than in any other subject in the secondary school, socialization is necessary. Through his own activities intermingled with the activities of the group, the pupil can learn and develop. Education must begin with the child and must be adapted to the needs and requirements of the child as he grows. Only in this manner, according to the new philosophy, can the individual be made socially efficient.

The content of the subjects is becoming ever more closely related to method. Curriculum reformers insist that only the material which is utilitarian and functional in the development of good citizens should be taught in the secondary-school social studies as well as in other subjects. Yet it remains to be discovered what is useful and what is not, for there is much disagreement on this problem. Efforts are being centered, however, upon determining the values to be derived from integrated units of subject matter which will contribute to extending the experiences of the pupil and aiding him to adjust himself to his environment.

Within recent years, many methods of teaching the social studies have been developed. Attempts have been made to discover the best method or methods of teaching not only the various social studies but other subjects as well. Studies and experiments have been made and reported in various educational journals and printed in scholarly dissertations. These are usually of two general types: (1) the uncontrolled experiment, where the plan, method, and results of single methods of teaching are described, and (2) the controlled experiment, which involves the use of two or more classes, each studying the same material but using different methods of instruction. A careful check and study of each class will show which has gained the most and will reveal which method is superior in so far as those groups are concerned. The most important contribution of such experiments in the various social studies has been to show the superiority of many of the newer special methods over the traditional or generally accepted textbook method. It may be added, however, that many of these controlled experiments have lost their validity because the promoters have forgotten the true spirit of experimentation and have started out on the premise that their plan is superior.

From a study of the theory and practice of various methods of teaching the social studies, together with much experimentation, it is evident that there is no one best method. Few good teachers use any one procedure exclusively. The successful teacher will avail himself of many methods or phases of different methods, varying them to suit the conditions that

surround him, the materials of instruction, and the mental status of his class. It is well to keep in mind, however, that the best methods are those which arouse interest and effort, which develop self-activity and initiative, which stimulate independent thinking and judgment on the part of the pupil, and which make for cooperation and socialization.

Summary

The origin of methodology in education can be traced to the ideas of Rousseau, who himself was influenced by Locke and others. Earlier writers, like Comenius, rebelled against the formal education of their day and suggested better principles of teaching, but without any tangible results because of the turmoil of the times. In the eighteenth century, Rousseau provided some of the ideas for reforms in teaching, which others developed and put into practice. The most important of these reformers was Pestalozzi, who accomplished his great work in Switzerland between 1800 and 1825. Pestalozzi attempted to reduce the educational process to an organized routine, based on the natural development of the child. Although not original or very efficient, his work marks the introduction of modern pedagogy and the beginning of modern methods in elementary training. Pestalozzian ideas spread rapidly throughout Europe and the United States but had little practical influence upon methods of teaching in the secondary schools of our country.

Froebel, Herbart, and others succeeded Pestalozzi. Herbart emphasized educational development from experience and from the environment, as contrasted with Pestalozzi's emphasis on mental development from within and according to organic law. Thus, although Herbart recognized the need for adapting instruction to fit the capacities of the child, his chief concern was with method and with the work of the teacher. Herbart undertook to show that education consisted in the building up of an "apperceptive mass" of ideas, rather than in the development of the mental faculties. Herbartianism worked out by Ziller and others in Germany has had a great influence upon educational content and methods in the United States. Modern educational theory and practice have grown largely out of the work of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Herbart. The new philosophy, however, is based upon a new psychology and upon modern scientific procedure. It emphasizes the pupil, at least in theory; it regards learning as an active process; it considers the interests of the pupils individually and collectively; and it lays stress on education as being a constant process of reorganizing and reconstructing experience.

Questions

1. Compare the importance of a knowledge of subject matter with a broad understanding of methods of instruction.
2. Discuss the work of Comenius and account for the lack of influence of his ideas during his period.
3. What were Rousseau's contributions to methodology?
4. Show the influence of the work of Pestalozzi.
5. In what ways were Herbart's ideas revolutionary?
6. What connection can you find between Herbartianism and the great amount of educational investigation and activity during the last decade of the nineteenth century?
7. Compare the report of the Committee of Seven in 1898 with the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies in 1934 in regard to method.
8. Why was Herbartianism criticized?
9. What are the chief factors that have brought about the rise of a new philosophy of education?
10. Discuss the contributions of John Dewey to educational philosophy.
11. Why has the theory of individualistic training been challenged by educational sociologists?
12. Summarize recent trends in methods of instruction.

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CHAPTER IV

THE LECTURE AND TEXTBOOK METHODS

Various Methods of Teaching

Many methods have been devised for teaching the social studies. The teacher must familiarize himself with all of them in order to determine which will be most effective in attaining his aims. Unfortunately, proponents of a new method have often made such extravagant claims for their particular system that the beginning teacher especially, and even teachers-in-service, have become bewildered and wonder if they are doing the right kind of teaching. For example, there has been an emphasis on democratic methods in every classroom in recent years. Few would deny that this is right, but some go to extremes in defining their ideas and would make of each classroom experience a junior town meeting or some similar procedure. The democratic way of life does not depend so much on method as it does on the feeling within the group. Democracy is a broad term and its practice is just as significant in listening to a lecture or hearing a concert as it is in participating in a forum or a panel discussion.

Method is closely related to aims and objectives, for it is the way we attempt to achieve the purposes of education. It has been pointed out that the specific aims of the social studies should include: (1) acquiring of knowledge, (2) development of reasoning power and critical judgment, (3) training in independent study, (4) formation of habits and skills, and (5) training in desirable patterns of conduct. With these aims clearly in mind, the teacher must plan how he can best accomplish his work. For example, the pupil should possess certain knowledge and understanding. How best can this be accomplished? Some methods are conducive to inculcating desirable patterns of conduct but, in so doing, minimize the amount of knowledge learned. The question then arises as to the relative value of the work accomplished. At the outset, it would seem that desirable patterns of conduct are more important; but if each class is doing this and if the school also is geared to such a program, it may indicate that more time be given to the teaching of knowledge and that methods be used to attain this end. A pupil who is continually expressing himself may not have anything worth while to express.

Many methods have been used in attempting to reach the goals of edu-

cation. The two oldest are the lecture and textbook methods. Others have been devised including the project and problem methods, socialized recitation, supervised study, laboratory procedure, individualized study, and group planning. Unfortunately, many of the proponents of these have made extravagant claims for them, so that the best interests of the pupils have not been served. The successful teacher is he who is familiar with all the methods and who then, with his aims clearly in view, selects the methods that will best aid him in attaining them. Naturally, the best way to become acquainted with the various methods is to see them in action. Observing teachers who are successful is the only satisfactory way of understanding and evaluating the methods.

A word of caution must be given in the use of methods. The personality of the teacher should be considered. Some teachers are able to do things successfully in a classroom that if attempted by others would result in failure. Teachers differ and some may have more success with one method than with another. The difference in pupils and in groups is another factor. Such factors as age level, social status, previous training of the class, and intelligence affect the use of methods.

The Lecture Method

Schoolmen in general have frowned upon the use of the lecture method in American high schools. Indeed in some schools the attitude against the lecture is so marked that the administrators are antagonistic to any amount of talking on the part of the teacher beyond a minimum essential. However, the use of the method, or any part of it, in the American high schools depends on the aims of each course. With this in mind, it is well to evaluate the method, trace its history in other institutions, and find out whether or not it is adaptable for use in American schools.

The lecture method is the procedure of teaching most widely used in American colleges and universities. This method can be traced to the medieval universities of Europe, where the purpose of the lecture was to impart knowledge through manuscripts or texts in order to confirm authoritative doctrines. With the development of the scientific spirit in the eighteenth century, the lecture took on new meaning and the avowed function of the teacher was conceived to be not only teaching but the advancement of his own particular field or discipline. The German universities led this movement, and the medieval lecture, or the interpretation of authoritative texts, gave way to the lecture designed to present in a systematic manner the various aspects of a field of knowledge. There is no question that these institutions succeeded in their aims and the students were well versed in the subject matter of their studies.

The method has been criticized in American institutions of higher

learning, although not so vociferously as in the high schools. Generally the same criticisms have been leveled against its use in colleges as in high schools; these will be taken up later. However, the lecture in the colleges has many advantages that warrant its use under present-day conditions. It is the only practical procedure that can be followed in large classes; and this, no doubt, is the chief reason why it is so widely used at the present time. Other means may be utilized in colleges to supplement the lecture so that the aims may be reasonably attained. It may also be said that subject matter occupies a more prominent place in colleges than in high school. In evaluating its place in higher institutions of learning, it is evident that those colleges which have liberally used the method and have emphasized sound knowledge have achieved the ideal of the mastery of subject matter.

Many writers who have sanctioned the use of the lecture method in colleges have condemned its use in secondary schools. They insist that high-school pupils are too immature to be subject to much of this form of procedure. It is well, however, to keep in mind that the lecture method has proved successful in secondary-school instruction elsewhere. In European countries, especially in Germany, France, and England, this means of instruction has been perfected and used with great thoroughness to accomplish the ends sought. This does not mean that the procedures successful in foreign countries can be followed in the same way in American schools. Conditions in the secondary schools of the European countries are more favorable to such a procedure because of their highly trained teachers, their selected type of pupils, and the military discipline of the schools. The problem before us concerns what use we can make of any phase of the lecture method in attaining the aims of the secondary schools of today, with their diverse population and other problems.

The Use of the Lecture Method in Secondary Schools

In discussing the use of the lecture method in American high schools, certain factors must be considered. In the first place, aims have undergone tremendous change, so that the accumulation of subject matter is only one phase of the program. Again, the school population has changed, so that our schools are no longer designed primarily for college preparation. The accepted goal is to educate all American youth. In the third place, teachers are not trained in the use of the lecture method. It is therefore true that the schools cannot utilize, except in modified form, the lecture of the college or of the European high school.

In criticizing the lecture, many have gone to the extreme of condemning any "telling" procedures on the part of the teacher. It is true that a fifty-minute lecture must be exceptionally interesting to hold the atten-

tion of pupils, especially if it has to be accompanied by laborious note taking. However, this is not the only way the method may be used. In a sense, it may include anything that the teacher "tells." In this discussion we shall consider it to include any talk—planned or impromptu—of the teacher, whether it lasts only a few minutes or fifty or more.

The tendency in school practice today is to put the teacher as far in the background as possible. The pupil must find out for himself. This generally goes under the name of pupil activity and is governed by a false interpretation of the educational maxim "learn by doing." Too often an analogy is taken from an activity that involves motor responses to explain an activity that involves mental responses. A child learns to walk by trying to walk; a boy learns history by self-activity. It is never made clear how this self-activity takes place. In the minds of some educators, if a pupil is reading a textbook, it is self-activity; if he is listening to a lecture, it is not. Such an assumption is foolish. For example, a pupil is studying a problem in history. To solve the problem, he gets much material from the textbook. He also may get other material from the teacher through a lecture. The question naturally arises why the knowledge acquired from the textbook is more significant than that acquired from the lecture. In the one case, it entered the mind of the pupil by means of the eye from the printed page; in the other, it entered the mind of the pupil by means of the ear from the lips of the teacher. Indeed, the second means might be much more significant, for the words have received the warmth of a living personality.

Much harm has been done to the cause of education through loose terminology. One of the terms often used and loosely applied is "pupil passivity." The implication intended emphasizes that pupils do not learn when they are passive. Education does not consist of a "pouring-in" process. No one will find fault with the term itself; the trouble comes with the interpretations placed upon it. Some educators in condemning procedures in the teaching of the social studies have sought their illustrations in other branches of learning. Each subject has its own aims and their attainment must be judged on the basis of the subject studied. If one is teaching typewriting, naturally the pupils must be busy at the typewriters. Of course, the teacher must explain details, but the end in view is a physical action. The teacher who has spent too much time talking in such a course would be ineffective. However, the efficacy of the teacher's methods in typing is shown in the results in that subject. It is therefore unfair to judge the results in the social studies on the basis of methods in that or any other subject. In arithmetic, pupils are taught how to do problems and then they work out similar problems on paper or blackboard. None of the methods in these examples would have anything to do with the

teaching of poetry appreciation. Indeed, having the pupils read the poetry from a book would be very inadequate as compared to having a teacher who loved poetry and who had a fine voice read it to them and point out its beauty. In the social studies, the objective is generally not a physical action but a mental one. If physical activity is involved, it is a means to an end and not an end in itself. Map drawing, for example, is merely to aid the understanding.

Because pupils are passively seated in a classroom listening to a talk, it does not follow that their minds are not active. In many such situations pupils have literally been seated on the edge of their seats, avidly taking in every idea that is presented. A teacher explaining or talking about a problem could awaken the interest of pupils so that, after the talk, hands are raised to express comments or ask questions for further details. The teacher might be doing most of the talking, but no one could accuse the class of being mentally passive. In wartime, a teacher giving a talk on countries where brothers and friends are fighting and where the boys in the class might also have to go in the future might have a lack of physical activity in the classroom, but the pupils could be in rapt attention and wide awake to every word spoken.

It is true that teachers often take too large a part of the class period. This is not necessarily a fault of the lecture method; the fault lies in the teacher. Too much time is often wasted in the classroom in useless questions and rambling comment. Frequently the poorer teacher, who does not know how to fill in the class period, resorts to talk that has little educational significance. The better teacher may come to class with a well-prepared talk that proves useless because the class is uninterested and listless. The lecture method has a part to play in the secondary school, but it must be used with discretion. It demands mental activity on the part of the pupil.

In the social studies the acquiring and understanding of knowledge is important. In choosing methods, the teacher has to consider this aim. The modified lecture method has a place in the social studies above all subjects. Especially is this true in the study of history. The reason for this is found in the very nature of the subject. History is a study of vast content, and the great danger is that pupils will become lost in a maze of facts. The teacher, by careful planning and telling, may enable the pupils to see the meaning of events and their relation to one another and to the larger movements of history. Often, history teachers assume too much on the part of their pupils. Just because a child knows two events it does not follow that he understands their relation to each other or to history. The teacher must consider that high-school pupils are limited in both time and ability. This does not mean that teachers must resort to the

"pouring-in" method of instruction that has been justly criticized in recent years. The "telling" method may be used effectively to aid and direct pupils in securing results from their own activities.

In all phases of education, the probable and desirable activities of adult life must be kept in mind. The radio and the television are important in the lives of our pupils and will continue through their adult life. To be a good listener and to choose a higher type of program are essential in our educational program. If one is to occupy his rightful place in a democracy, he must have an interest and a desire to know and understand the issues of American life. Television today presents many educational opportunities. Anything the school can do to make pupils interested in our problems and have a desire to listen to the issues is of great import. One of the criticisms of American schools today is that the pupils make a poor assembly audience. Yet it is important in the democratic process that pupils be taught to be good listeners.

When to Use the Lecture Method

The teacher of the social studies has many opportunities to use the lecture, or "telling," method. The following are some of the uses to which it may be put:

1. To give an overview of a large unit, large topic, or large division of the course
2. To aid and supplement the pupils' reading
3. To give a background of a topic, so that the pupil might more intelligently undertake his work
4. To save time for the pupil, so that he will have a greater amount of time for more significant study
5. To arouse interest in the pupil
6. To give an intelligent assignment
7. To explain terms and correct faulty ideas
8. To make summaries and give reviews

1. *To Give an Overview.* This is of great educational value to the pupil in the social studies. Most pupils in these subjects are more or less bewildered by the great amount of factual material inherent in their study. They cannot see any way out of the dilemma. Naturally their reading becomes irksome and wearisome. A carefully planned overview delivered in a vital and interesting manner would prevent much of this bewilderment. The pupils will be able to see where they are going. Their reading will become more meaningful, for they will see its relationship to

the work at hand. The facts that they gather will not stand isolated but will be seen in relation to the larger view of the subject.

2. *To Aid and Supplement the Pupils' Reading.* This does not mean a substitute for the pupils' reading. The teacher must plan carefully the work that the pupil has to do. One of the chief difficulties in connection with collateral and supplementary reading is the tying up of such reading with the classroom work. The teacher must take time and care to make the aims of outside reading intelligible and to relate it closely to the work of the course. In addition to this, however, there is much material that the teacher can give that will lead to a better understanding of the subject. The results of the teacher's own varied reading and research that pertain to the topic in hand should be available to the pupils.

3. *To Give a Background.* This is more evident in history than in any other subject. The events of history become more meaningful when they are seen in relation to an adequate background. The average pupil in the high school does not have the inclination, the time, or the ability to obtain such a background. It is no wonder then that the work so often becomes monotonous and the study of history uninteresting. Here is an opportunity for the teacher. He can provide such a background that the work will take on a new meaning. For example, in a discussion of the German Reformation, the pupil generally starts with a knowledge of only a few of the religious questions of that period. What a difference in comprehension might ensue if the teacher would picture for his class briefly, but vividly, the religious, political, and economic conditions in Germany at that time.

4. *To Save Time for the Pupil.* The teacher must remember that the pupil's time is limited and that, if he spends it in studying minor details, he will be forced to neglect the more significant aspects. There is no excuse for a teacher's squandering a few hours of a pupil's time in having him search for material and information that can be given in a fifteen-minute lecture. This does not mean that a pupil must be prevented from doing independent study; it does mean that his study time must be used to the best advantage.

5. *To Arouse Interest.* We are not interested in what we know little or nothing about. To most pupils, studies are as dead things until the invigorating words of a living personality make them live. It is the teacher that introduces his pupils to the events and persons of history. Andrew Jackson and Sam Houston may become living personages to pupils, instead of musty figures from a historic past. It is the teacher's duty to engender and stimulate interest. Reading naturally occupies a large place in the social studies. But how can we get pupils interested in reading? It is

possible for a teacher to talk about a book so that pupils will desire to read it. Interest must play an important part in education, because it is the ultimate stimulus for study.

6. *To Give an Assignment.* The assignment is often the most neglected phase of the teacher's work. How frequently do we hear at the closing minute of a class period: "The next five pages for tomorrow." It would be well if the teacher would often consider the assignment as a brief lecture. The assignment is the teacher's opportunity to show how the new work is related to that just completed, to tell the pupils what is expected of them and how they are to do it, and to give such explanations as will enable them to do their work efficiently and intelligently.

7. *To Explain Terms and Correct Faulty Ideas.* Any teacher who has taught any length of time realizes the importance of teaching pupils the meanings of terms that are in use in current life or that are found in textbooks. Quite often, teachers take for granted that pupils understand these terms only to find as they progress in the course that the pupils have a very meager or even incorrect knowledge of them. Of course, the text will contain definitions of many terms, but this does not insure the pupil's mastering them. A teacher could give a pupil a list of terms to define; the pupil might go to the text and copy high-sounding definitions of them. Yet if the teacher would ask the pupil to explain the terms, the response might be very unsatisfactory. It appears that many pupils have developed the habit of copying definitions from textbooks without any conception of their meaning. Even in examinations, pupils often give correct answers that have been memorized with no real understanding. The teacher can profitably spend time in creating a mental picture of the simple meanings of many complex terms. The picture must be simple, for many pupils find it impossible to grasp complex ideas. The superior pupil, of course, after learning the term in its simplest form, can go on to a greater complexity of meaning.

In the social studies especially, it is absolutely necessary that pupils get correct concepts of many terms. Too often discussions are carried on in the classroom that are unintelligible to many pupils because their ideas of the terms used are inadequate and, in too many cases, even erroneous.

8. *To Make Summaries and Give Reviews.* Summarizing should not always be the work of the teacher alone. Probably the best summaries are the result of the teacher and the class working together. However, there are times when the teacher must gather up the loose ends and present a summary. The aim of a summary should be to emphasize the important points of the lesson and to show the relation of the lesson to previous lessons and to the unit or subject as a whole. What is true of the summary

is also true of the review. In the social studies with their complexity of material, frequent reviews are necessary in order to give emphasis to that which is important. The review, under a skillful teacher, becomes an excellent teaching device. To aid pupils in preparing for examinations, careful reviews also are of great value.

Suggestions for Using the Lecture or "Telling" Method

In view of the importance of the lecture method in the social studies, a few practical suggestions may be made for the teacher to follow:

1. If the teacher has something definite to say, he should carefully plan for it. It is not enough for him to know in a general way the material he is to tell. He should know exactly what he is going to say and how he is going to do it. He may modify what he has prepared to say, owing to exigencies that may arise in the classroom, but his lecture must be planned and mastered. This does not mean that there is no place for the impromptu talk. Quite frequently pupils will call for a lengthy explanation from the teacher at a moment's notice. Teachers should be masters of their subjects, so that they can meet such a situation.

2. If the talk is to be long, it should be carefully outlined, with the few main points distinct and the subtopics falling naturally under these main headings.

3. Care must be taken that the details do not hide the headings or the theme itself. Many a talk is ruined because some of the details stand out so prominently as to make the listener forget the theme.

4. An effort should be made to speak as freely as possible and on a conversational level. It is a mistake for the teacher to think that he must assume a "lecture" voice and manner.

5. The outline of the talk should be memorized as far as possible. Much of the effectiveness of a lecture is lost if the speaker is constantly glancing at his notes.

6. The teacher must constantly do "rapport" testing. This means that he must look into the faces of his hearers and, by the expression shown, judge whether or not what he is saying is registering and whether the pupils are following. If the pupils become listless or uninterested, it is best to change the procedure by introducing a question or calling for an opinion.

7. Care should be taken to talk slowly. It is much easier to speak than to assimilate what is said. An occasional pause allows the thought to sink in.

8. If the talk is long, it may be wise to introduce some discussion.

9. Digressions are permissible if the plan is not lost sight of and if the worth of the digression is evident.

10. The most delightful speakers are those who have a sense of humor. This does not imply telling irrelevant stories. It does mean a faculty of discovering and appreciating the ludicrous and the droll in certain situations. There is a vast difference between having a sense of humor and being humorous.

11. Note taking depends on the purpose of the talk. If the purpose is to arouse interest and enthusiasm, there will be no note taking. However, if there are points of importance to be remembered, the pupils should take notes.

The Pupil of Low Ability and the Lecture

Many educators are urging that all American youth of high-school age be enrolled in the schools. The economic situation and state laws also tend toward this end. If such a condition should materialize, it would mean a larger number of pupils of low ability in the schools, for usually they are the ones who drop out at an early age. This raises problems relating to curriculum and method, for many of these pupils are unable to form concepts of time and distance. They are generally the ones who have reading difficulties. Indeed, it is surprising how many of them do not have reading ability above that of a fourth-grade pupil. They find the social studies, as usually taught, far above their comprehension. Some educators have attempted to answer the question by giving these pupils an increased amount of extracurricular activities, in addition to courses that require but little mental effort to master. Mistakes have been made, for it has often been supposed that these pupils can succeed in courses of a more practical nature. However, most of them perform as poorly in the practical arts as in academic studies. So far as the social studies are concerned, courses have been planned on current topics or problems that require little effort.

The question may be raised whether or not we are doing enough for these pupils in the social-studies program. In view of our citizenship-training program, are these individuals capable of grasping a deeper meaning of the heritage that is theirs? To be sure, present-day textbooks are beyond their ability. They are unable to see the complex relationships between facts. Some educators have suggested that textbooks be written for this group. These texts must not be elementary schoolbooks, but ones written especially for this group. So far, none have appeared, and textbook companies would have to be assured of a field before they are published. However, here is a field in which the "telling" method might be used to good advantage. Through a storytelling procedure which is dramatic, a skillful teacher may present facts so that the boys and girls may grasp some, at least, of the significant phases of American civiliza-

tion. This type of teaching calls for the highest skills, and not all teachers can accomplish such ends. However, the possibilities warrant a more extensive use of these procedures, especially by gifted teachers. Such teaching will give meanings that no textbook can impart and will stamp upon the minds of youth truth that is infused with worth and feeling.

Too little has been done for this group of American youth. The tendency has been to dismiss them as uneducable and to wish that they were not in school. They generally present behavior problems, but their conduct is often the result of their school experience. Constant failure, with much scolding, has made them discouraged and conscious of their inadequacies. Their behavior is often a defense reaction, which usually expresses itself in surliness, impudence, quarreling, or some abnormal way. These pupils are going to continue being a problem, and the teacher must take more and more pains to understand them and in a sympathetic way to help them attain the goals of education, so that they may be educated to the greatest extent of their capabilities.

Textbook Methods

It is quite often stated that most teaching in American secondary schools is textbook teaching. From the point of view of method, this is a rather general and vague statement. Almost all methods can be used with the textbook as a basis of study. Thorough discussion of the subject, therefore, would entail a study of nearly all the teaching procedures. In this chapter, the discussion will be rather general, with a few suggested specific procedures.

When one condemns the textbook method, he generally has in mind that type of teaching which is the direct offspring of the *memoriter* system that characterized the teaching of history when it was first taught in our secondary schools. In this early period of teaching, the aim was to have the pupil memorize the textbook word for word. The superior pupil was he who could reproduce the exact words of the text. The work of the teacher was to correct the variations of the pupil from the phraseology of the text. Anyone who had the ability to read and the patience to listen could teach. This *memoriter* procedure has long been out of use. The successor to that system owes its origin partly to the need of making concessions to the duller pupils or to those whose power of memorizing was weak. It was soon found that many could not do this memory work in a satisfactory manner. As a concession, they were allowed to give the substance of the book without memorizing it word for word. In time, this concession became a method, and the fight was on between those who favored a parrotlike repetition of the text and those who required a repetition of the facts or conclusions of the text in the pupil's

own words. This does not mean that there is a sharp dividing line where the old system was discarded and the new begun. There were adherents of the early procedure down to the end of the nineteenth century, whereas there were objectors long before the middle of the century.

The Recitation Testing Procedure. The method as it has come down to us and is practiced even by teachers today may be summarized as follows: The teacher assigns a few pages of the textbook; the pupils memorize the facts presented in those pages; and then on the next day, the teacher examines the class orally to see if the pupils can reproduce the substance of the facts that they have memorized. If any of the pupils see relationships between the facts, they do so in spite of the teacher rather than through his aid. The procedure is not good educational practice. It does not even do what it purports to accomplish. In classes of any size it is impossible, in the time allowed, for the teacher to examine orally each member on all the facts that he is expected to know. What the instructor does is to ask each pupil—or as many as possible—a few questions. This does not even insure that they know all the important facts of the lesson. Worst of all, however, the procedure violates the aims and objectives of the teaching of the social studies. The aims in these subjects demand understanding, and none of this faculty is involved in the memorization of a list of facts.

This does not mean that facts are not important. One needs to know them in order to reason and to see the relationships involved. The procedure is criticized because in it the facts become ends in themselves. The method also is extremely wasteful and inefficient. Undoubtedly, the teacher must discover whether or not the pupils know a certain amount of factual material, but there are better ways of finding that out than by wasting the class period. The teacher can devise means whereby the pupils must use the material, or he may give a short written objective test at the beginning of the period, so that the major portion of the time may be devoted to real class teaching.

Pupil-Teacher Textbook Study. A better plan in textbook instruction is the one in which teacher and pupils study the textbook together during the class period. No preparation is made before the class meets. With textbooks open, the teacher explains the main topic, the relation of the subtopics and the meaning of the facts. He may supplement the material of the book to bring about better understanding. The pupils read, orally or silently, portions of the book and the teacher asks questions to find out whether they are securing an understanding. The pupils discuss the subject matter and ask questions when they fail to understand.

Although this plan emphasizes the understanding of the material, it would not be advisable to use this method throughout the entire high-

school period, or even entirely throughout one of the grades. Indeed, no one method should be used exclusively. The plan, however, might be used advantageously in the junior high school. It would enable the pupils to learn how to use a textbook correctly and would furnish a basis for efficient habits of study. In the senior high school, however, there might be objections to the procedure. It is not productive of independent study on the part of the pupil and it is rather time-consuming in the classroom. However, if pupils have not been taught how to study a textbook in the junior high school, it would be profitable to use some of this procedure in the higher grades.

The Topical Recitation Procedure. Another method based on the text that has been used successfully is the topical recitation procedure. In this plan, the teacher outlines the lesson in a series of topics. The pupil then studies the text in order to master each topic. Each pupil must be prepared to tell about any of these topics in class. Such a procedure demands a careful assignment. The pupils must know what is expected of them. A guidance outline is an excellent device for securing this definiteness. All that is needed in an outline of this form is a list of the topics to be treated and a brief analysis of each for the aid and guidance of the pupil.

One of the objections to this procedure is that each member of the class prepares the same topics as the other pupils, so that when one of them talks on a topic he is repeating what all the rest are supposed to know. Of course, the class could criticize the one who talks on the material he presents and fill in any inadequacies. It is possible, too, that the topics be presented in a brief form and that a short class discussion on each one should follow. If outside reading has been assigned, the discussion should be richer and more fruitful.

The Use of a Single Textbook

It is sometimes argued that good teaching is impossible if the pupil is limited to a single textbook. It is true that supplementary and collateral reading can be of great value to the pupil, but it is also true that much excellent teaching has been done with a single book. The textbooks of today lend themselves to this treatment much better than did those of the past. Many recent textbooks in the social studies, especially those in history, present their subject in eight or nine meaningful divisions. The subtopics are then carefully arranged under these heads. With such a book in hand, the teacher can easily bring out the broad meanings of the subject. If forced to use a single textbook, he can make liberal use of the "telling" method to enrich and supplement the course.

The use of one text has been criticized on many grounds. One of the

chief objections is that it tends to inculcate in the children a reverence for the authoritativeness of the printed page. The pupils will accept the authority of the book as final and will form the habit of accepting without question everything that they see in print. This, however, might be due more to poor teaching than to the use of a single textbook. Each teacher should be an authority in his subject, and his pupils should regard him as such. The root of the trouble lies in the fact that teachers themselves follow the text too closely. If they would challenge any inaccuracies in the text and give various interpretations of other authors, more good would probably be done than by exposing the pupil to two or more textbooks, for the reading of various accounts does not insure that the pupils will note differences in them.

What is said of this objection can largely be said of others. Although it is true that the text gives but one viewpoint, it is also true that the teacher should himself have a viewpoint. It may be claimed that the text abounds in vague generalizations, but it must also be remembered that it is the duty of the teacher to see that they are made plain to the pupils. Although it may be stated that the text presents a meager treatment of the subject, this may be conceived as an opportunity for the teacher to enrich and supplement it. After all the objections have been considered, the conclusion may be that most of them must be laid at the door of poor teaching rather than accounted for by the use of a single textbook.

One thing that must be avoided in any textbook teaching is too-close adherence to the text. The dangers in this are not so acute today as in the past, for present-day texts are much better organized for teaching purposes. Even with the best texts, however, the teacher will have to bear in mind constantly the aims that he has set up for his course. With the text in hand and the aims in mind, he will map out his work for the year. Probably he will use the same major divisions as the book; but when he comes to the subdivisions, he will find need for judicious selection. Some of them may have to be omitted. If supplementary material is available, he may need to make use of it. For instance, most texts still insist on giving descriptions of the campaigns of all our wars, despite the fact that these are alien to the aims of the teaching of history. On the other hand, writers vary in the emphasis that they place on different topics. Teachers should avoid the temptation to teach all that is in the text and should not follow too closely the emphasis given the material by the author.

Naturally, the use of a single textbook is more feasible in a study of history than in a nonhistorical field. For example, in a study of a topic in a course in problems of democracy, it is necessary that the study be brought up to date. It would not satisfy the aims of the course if a topic

was studied to a point of what happened some years ago and then the pupil left without an understanding of its significance today. In a study of the farm problem, it would be foolish to end with the various agricultural adjustment acts of the New Deal period. It is necessary for the pupil to know what has happened since that time and for him to understand the recent farm factors that affect our present daily living. It would, of course, be possible to teach this by using a text that is several years old and then use the "telling" method with a liberal assignment in newspapers and magazines. However, the number of pamphlets and other materials available at small cost would enable the teacher to present the problem in an adequate way.

The Use of Several Textbooks

There is a tendency today on the part of some teachers to break away from any textbook method in which the single book is emphasized by making use of several texts and references. In this procedure, no one book is emphasized to the disadvantage of the others. Many advantages are claimed for this plan. It is held that it overcomes the objection of pupils regarding the textbook as final authority. It also insures a better treatment of the various topics, as no textbook adequately treats every one of its divisions. The plan, however, is full of danger. It may succeed under the guidance of a teacher of extraordinary organizing ability. The course must be carefully outlined by the teacher and the organization made apparent to the pupils. In the hands of the average teacher, the results may prove unsuccessful. The pupils may be saturated with a superabundance of facts that confuse rather than enlighten them. It is a great mistake in teaching to think that the more facts to which a pupil is exposed, the greater will be his understanding. New material becomes significant only when the learner is able to interpret it on the background he already has. The background of the high-school pupil is often insufficient, so that he cannot assimilate the many facts with which he is confronted. The pupil becomes mentally confused and disgusted with the subject.

The nonhistorical social studies are better adapted to experiment with the idea of using several texts than is the study of history. The following plan has been successfully used in teaching a course in problems of democracy. The course is divided into a series of fifteen units. In each unit the teacher prepares a mimeographed outline, a copy of which is given to each pupil. On the outline is found an overview of the unit, including the subtopics to be studied. This does not mean that the list is a closed one, for other topics may be added if they come up in class. Next appears a list of from eight to twelve texts in which the reading for the

unit may be found. The chapters or pages are designated. Supplementary reading also is outlined. Attention is called to current literature, especially magazines and newspapers. At the beginning of the unit, the teacher takes a period or part of a period to discuss its content and the readings. He points out which readings are most important and what combination of readings would be best, as undoubtedly some of them are very similar. It should be pointed out that no one is expected to read all the books, although one or two generally do so; but a minimum amount of reading is expected of all. The prospects of a better class discussion are increased because of the many different texts read. For the entire course, about twenty different texts are used with about ten copies of each available. This is sufficient for about one hundred pupils, as classes need not be studying the same unit at the same time. Naturally, the teacher must rely on pupil help in the distribution of books, as some pupils will take out a different text each night.

Similar in some ways to the plan of basing the course on several texts is the practice of dispensing with the basic text in favor of a syllabus. If the syllabus is used, a copy should be placed in the hands of each pupil, just as each one receives a textbook in textbook teaching. It is essential at any stage of the learning process that the pupil see what he is doing and the general direction in which he is going. Probably the greatest danger in syllabus study lies in the assignment. Generally, about a half dozen or more readings are listed. Quite often much extraneous material is included with some overlapping and some material beyond the comprehension of the pupil. To avoid this requires a wide knowledge of the subject and careful planning. Much more care must be exercised in this procedure than in any plan in which a basic text is used, for the textbook gives at least the basic material for the course. In the hands of the novice, the syllabus procedure might result in confusion.

The Selection of Textbooks

Much attention and care are being given today to the selection of textbooks in the social studies, as well as in all other subjects in the curriculum. In the past, even though the textbook occupied a very prominent place in teaching, its selection by the teacher, superintendent, or school board was generally influenced by the personality of the textbook salesman, the general appearance of the book, the price of the book, or a subjective evaluation of it. In accord with the scientific spirit of the present, there is an increasing recognition of the need for objective evaluation in the selection of textbooks.

If a school is contemplating a change in a textbook, naturally the teacher

who is to teach the subject should have some say in the selection. Probably the principal and some of the other teachers in the department should act as a committee to help the teacher in making the selection. Book companies are very willing to submit copies when a change is to be made. With the various copies before him, the teacher with the aid of the committee can indicate a selection based on specific data.

Teachers should know and evaluate the new textbooks that come out in their field and sample copies may be obtained. New books also may be seen at the exhibits that the companies display at conventions and institutes. Inasmuch as a textbook in the social studies lasts about five years, and because many companies give a liberal allowance on old books, in order to get theirs placed in the school, the total cost of changing to a new text is not so large as might be supposed. Quite frequently, teachers may improve their teaching by obtaining a text which meets their standards better than the old one. It also leaves a good impression on the principal to find that the teacher is up to date in his field and able to give advice about texts. This is true, even if the school is not in a position to make changes at the time.

If there are several sections or classes in the same subject, the cost of changing a text may be quite small. For instance, if there are five classes taking the same course and using the same textbook, the teacher could change the text for one class each year and then in five years the entire group would be changed to the new text. The beginning teacher might think that to teach the same subject from two different texts would be a big problem. However, the task is not hard and the challenge of teaching from two different texts should be stimulating to the teacher.

Several check lists and scales of different types have appeared for rating textbooks in the various fields. A good, detailed check list for evaluating history textbooks is Miriam A. Compton's *An Evaluation of History Texts*. If a check list or a scale is too detailed or complicated, it will defeat its own purpose, and therefore it should be as simple as possible. The scale given below for evaluating textbooks in the social studies is an example of a simple but comprehensive scale. It will be seen that a numerical rating may be obtained for each textbook evaluated, and this may form a basis for comparison. Care should be taken in the numerical rating, however, for not all items are of equal value for teaching purposes. The book might rate high in mechanical elements, but if the vocabulary is too difficult for the pupils the book would be of little value. It is evident that, in using the scale, the evaluation of some items requires advanced training in subject matter, research, and teaching. The inexperienced teacher, however, should begin to train himself by using a scale

to evaluate textbooks with which he is familiar. The exercise itself is valuable, for it familiarizes him with the main features of a textbook. The best plan for evaluating a textbook is to secure a committee of trained teachers who will each evaluate by means of a scale the textbooks that are being considered. The results of the evaluations can be discussed and a decision be made by the group.

SCALE FOR EVALUATING TEXTBOOKS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Publication Data

- A. Title of Book
- B. Author or Authors
- C. Publisher
- D. Copyright Date
- E. Number of Pages
- F. Period Covered
- G. Price of Book

Numerical Rating

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--------------|------|--------|------|----------------|
| Very Poor | Poor | Medium | Good | Excel- lent |

I. Mechanical Elements

- 1. Appearance of book
- 2. Durability of binding
- 3. Kind of paper
- 4. Clearness of type
- 5. Width of margins

II. Organization

- 1. General plan
- 2. Logical divisions
- 3. Summaries
- 4. Coherence
- 5. Fundamental unity

III. Presentation

- 1. Style
- 2. Vocabulary
- 3. Concreteness
- 4. Freedom from bias
- 5. Up-to-date

IV. Illustrations

- 1. Accuracy
- 2. Objectivity
- 3. Quality
- 4. Pupil appeal
- 5. Proportion

V. Maps, Charts, and Graphs

- 1. Accuracy
- 2. Concreteness
- 3. Size
- 4. Value
- 5. Proportion

Numerical Rating

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--------------|------|--------|------|----------------|
| Very Poor | Poor | Medium | Good | Excel- lent |

VI. Exercises and Questions

1. Relation to subject matter
2. Comprehensiveness
3. Value
4. Motivation
5. Arrangement

VII. References and Bibliography

1. Practicability
2. Value to teacher
3. Value to pupil
4. Types of material
5. Up-to-date

VIII. Appendices and Index

1. Arrangement
2. Content
3. Usability
4. Completeness
5. Value

Totals

Summary

The lecture and the textbook methods are the two oldest procedures of teaching in the United States. Today, the lecture method is generally held in disrepute in the secondary schools. However, in American colleges and European secondary schools, the lecture continues to be successfully used. If the lecture is regarded as any kind of planned talk, it has a place in American high schools. Especially is this true in the social studies. These subjects are of vast content and often present difficulties to the pupil. By careful planning and "telling" the teacher may lead his pupils to a better understanding of the subject. Many opportunities will present themselves to the teacher for the use of the "telling" method. The ever-increasing number of pupils of low ability in the schools presents an opportunity for the use of a storytelling procedure that might be effective.

Textbook teaching has often been criticized because of its association with the *memoriter* method of learning. Generally, the type condemned today is the one in which pupils recite to the teacher the facts memorized from the book. The facts become ends in themselves, and not means to an understanding. There are better ways of using a textbook. One plan is that in which the pupils and the teacher study the textbook together. The teacher can show his class how to understand and get most from the textbook. Another plan is to use the textbook in a topical procedure. In this the pupils study the lesson in order to master topics. Al-

most all classroom methods can be used with the text as a basis of study. Much good teaching has been accomplished with the use of a single book. Some have advocated the use of more than one textbook in a subject. This plan presents the danger of confusing the pupil with a superabundance of facts. It may be inferior to the use of a single text with collateral reading. The wide use of the textbook in American schools demands that pupils be trained in its mastery. As textbooks vary in quality, the teacher should know how to evaluate them and should be permitted to aid in selecting them.

Questions

1. How would you answer the charge that the lecture method is undemocratic in the classroom?
2. What part does the personality of the teacher play in method?
3. How do you account for the success of the lecture method in American colleges and European secondary schools?
4. Show how the proper use of the "telling" method may aid in attaining our aims in the social studies.
5. Criticize the slogan "learn by doing" as it affects the social studies.
6. Why is it important to train pupils to be good listeners?
7. Enumerate the various uses of the "telling" method and indicate the best procedure for each.
8. How can the "telling" method be used in teaching pupils of low ability?
9. Criticize the recitation-testing procedure.
10. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the teacher and the pupils studying the text together in class?
11. Plan a chapter in a textbook to use on the basis of a topical-recitation procedure.
12. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a single textbook?
13. Compare the use of several textbooks with the use of a single textbook and collateral reading.
14. Get several textbooks in American history and evaluate them, using the scale at the end of the chapter. Choose the one you think best and be able to defend your choice.

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CHAPTER V

THE PROJECT AND PROBLEM METHODS

The Origin of the Project Method

No method has evoked more discussion than the project method. For many years books and journals have had much to say about it. Much of the discussion has centered in a definition of the project. An examination of the literature written on the subject discloses that almost every conceivable activity of the pupil has been labeled a project. Such activities as the following have been so named: dramatics, pageants, reading a book, making models, dressing dolls, drawing maps and charts, collecting pictures, making posters, writing themes, keeping notebooks, solving problems, and cultivating a plot of ground. A critical analysis of the method indicates that, in the minds of many of its exponents, anything accomplished under pupil motivation is a project. A brief history of the method may assist us in getting a clearer view of the subject and may dispel some of the confusion that it has caused teachers.

There is some doubt as to when the term "project" was first used in teaching procedure. Before educators adopted the word, it was used by engineers and surveyors in reference to their plans. We find the term in current use in educational thought during the early years of this century. Probably it originated at Columbia University, as the name of a procedure that came into being in a revolt against current methods and practices of teaching manual arts. Before that time, the method used in teaching manual training consisted in having pupils make articles in imitation of models. The pupils were taught how to use the tools and were given instructions in regard to making the articles. This close copying of models and following instructions came to be severely condemned. As a result, a new way was devised by which the pupils themselves planned and worked out what they made. The term "project" was used in referring to this new method. The two outstanding features of this procedure were pupil planning and physical activity resulting in physical creations. The project, however, is better known in its infancy in connection with the agricultural classes of the vocational schools of Massachusetts. It was used as a means of supplementing classwork with homework. In 1908 the Massachusetts State Board of Education used the term to designate a home task, planned and performed by the pupil. It is significant that the term "home project" was used. Such tasks, therefore, as the making of a

garden or the raising of chickens by pupils were home projects. The two essentials were similar to the manual-training project: pupil planning and the physical activity. Basically, the project method came to be understood as a constructive or experimental undertaking, which involved both preliminary planning and physical activity on the part of the pupil.

Until the year 1918, the term was definitely understood in educational terminology as explained in the previous paragraph. However, in that year, Dr. W. H. Kilpatrick of Columbia University gave a definition of the term "project" that has since been the cause of much perplexity. He defined it as "wholehearted purposeful activity proceeding in a social environment, or more briefly, in the unit element of such activity, the hearty purposeful act."¹ This definition has been used by many so as to include under the term any "wholehearted purposeful activity" on the part of the pupil.

Since 1918, the whole matter has been very confusing to many teachers, and the subject has been one of much controversy. On the one extreme, there are those who hold that any "purposeful" school activity is a project, whereas others relegate it to pupil-planned activities that result in physical creations. J. A. Stevenson gives a definition that tends to the point of view of the project in the teaching of agriculture of the earlier years. He states that "a project is a problematic act carried to completion in its natural setting."² However, even this writer is vague in his interpretation as to what constitutes a natural setting in the educational process.

A discussion of these viewpoints may seem like quibbling. Nevertheless, it is essential that one have a clear definition of terms. It is of little value to educational theory and practice to collect a series of separate activities, held together by a string of pupil motivation, and call them projects. The various items often called projects have enough differences among them either to be called by their old familiar names or to enjoy distinctive new ones. It is not necessary that both the construction of a gate and the solving of a problem in history or economics should be called projects. From a common-sense point of view, the term in the social studies should be restricted to a pupil-planned, purposeful task accomplished in a real-life situation. This definition will become more evident in the discussion that follows.

The Difference between Activities and Projects

Much of the confusion concerning projects arose with the growth of the "activity curriculum" or "activity program" in the elementary school,

¹ "The Project Method," *Teachers College Record*, 19 (September, 1918), p. 320.

² *The Project Method of Teaching* (New York, 1921), p. 43.

especially when its use was urged upon the secondary school. This movement should not be confused with the extracurricular activities of the secondary school. The "activity program" in the elementary school may be said to be the logical fruition of the project method as defined by Dr. Kilpatrick and others. It conceives the curriculum in terms of tasks to be performed rather than as lessons to be learned. The emphasis is on what the pupil does. For example, elementary-school pupils may learn arithmetic from running a play store or a play bank, and their history from dramatizing the scenes of the past. Under such a system, a large use of such activities as modeling, making articles, collecting, drawing maps and posters, dramatizing, and decorating takes place.

Many who believed in the efficacy of the activity program in the elementary school have urged its adoption in the secondary field. An example of its use may be seen in a Latin class which completed a unit consisting of collecting materials from newspapers and magazines to show the use of Latin phrases or word pictures in present-day advertising. Another example in the secondary school may be the making of models for such units as transportation. If the word "activities" is used, there need be no quarrel as to terminology, for fundamentally it involves merely a concept of the philosophy of education in which one emphasizes pupil activity as a means of teaching. The difficulty has been that so many have called these various activities projects and have labeled them a teaching method.

It may be profitable to discuss some of the things that have gone under the name "project," in order to differentiate them from the definition given in this chapter. In the first place, projects must not be confused with dramatics. The acting of a scene of history may be made part of a project, but it is not a project in itself. It may be of educational value for a class to act out the Constitutional Convention in the classroom, but there is no need to change the specific name of dramatics into a self-defining generic name like project. This is not a real, lifelike situation, and it would be more opportune to discuss its merits under dramatics than under any confusing term. It has been suggested that a play may become a part of a project. For example, a class may agree to take full charge of an assembly program. The pupils decide to act out the Constitutional Convention. They plan it and act it. The assembly provides the lifelike situation. Here, then, are the elements of the definition given of the project. It should be noted in this example that the emphasis is not on the acting but on the undertaking and responsibility assumed by the class. What is true of plays is true also of such activities as mock trials and pageants.

The writing of themes has often been included under the name "proj-

ect." There does not seem to be any justification for this, as the writing of themes can better be discussed under its individual name than under a general classification called project. Such an indiscriminate use of the term confuses rather than enlightens. The writer witnessed an incident in which the members of a college class were told that each would have to do a project as part of the required work of the course. The class was in a quandary as to what the instructor wanted until they forced from his unwilling lips the statement that he wanted no more than an old-fashioned theme. Such confusion is unnecessary. The great need in education, especially in teaching, is to be specific and definite. The theme, to be sure, has many elements of the project, but its nature is such that it should receive a separate classification.

The project is not to be confused with the making of miniature reproductions. In the minds of many teachers, a project consists merely in reproducing models, such as vehicles, ships, and weapons. Some of the things discussed in class are reproduced. For instance, a pupil learns various features of medieval life and then reproduces some of them, such as a cathedral or a manor, in miniature. Although there may be educational value in this procedure, it is not a real-life situation.

Under such plans and procedures, usually given the name of project, many educational sins have been committed. Too much time can easily be lost in physical creations that have but little educational value to the pupil. In a seventh grade class in geography, a "project" was undertaken, depicting Indian life. It was an elaborate affair and took much time. At the close of the school term, the pupils knew a lot about dressing Indian dolls and making miniature Indian wigwams, but they knew little geography. Quite often, ridiculous claims are made for such procedures. A teacher who had her children do much in the way of dressing dolls took great pride in the fact that one of the pupils became a costume designer, but she neglected to state what benefit the rest of the class had received or whether or not this was the best way of producing costume designers.

The Use of the Project in the Social Studies

Under the definition of the term "project" given in this chapter, it is evident that the study of history is ill adapted to the method. In the other social studies, there are more opportunities for its use and much of educational value that can be gained. Civics especially offers many opportunities to use the method. A junior high school was confronted with the problem of many drives for funds inaugurated by various charitable organizations. Every month a few of the organizations desired to solicit funds in the school. The problem was brought before the ninth-grade civics classes. As a result, they decided to undertake a project. The classes

then investigated the groups seeking to collect in the school, as well as other charitable institutions that worked in the community. Committees were organized and assigned to work. Data were found on how much was usually collected by each organization in its entirety and in the community. Facts were ascertained on how much was spent in the community and outside of it. A rather thorough study therefore was made of the welfare agencies working and collecting in the community. After all the facts were assembled and discussed, the pupils decided that the school would have one big drive for funds that year and then would vote on how the funds would be divided. The pupils planned the drive and collected the funds. Each organization that the pupils thought worthy was given a percentage of the funds collected, based on the data that the survey revealed. It is easily seen how in this project much of educational value was attained. The pupils learned much about their community and about some of our large charitable organizations. Better still, they learned to assume responsibility and make decisions.

The community offers many opportunities for pupil projects. However, the school itself may be regarded as a community and may be a fertile field for projects of various kinds. Quite frequently, problems arise in the classroom that may prove the basis for a project. In one class that was discussing the health of the nation the problem arose concerning the effects on an individual of eating little or no breakfast. As a result of the discussion, the girls of the class planned an assembly program to emphasize the subject of health. With the permission of the principal, they gave a quiz program modeled after one of the radio shows in which two groups of contestants vied for honors. The program was tinged with humor and was well received by the pupils of the school. While this project had a closer connection with a health program than with the social studies, it had its social implications.

Quite frequently, the civic traits that are emphasized in the classroom are better practiced in other organizations of the school. Student government offers an excellent opportunity for the practice of these traits. Indeed, student government itself may be termed a project. It is strange that many schools which seek the advantages inherent in the project neglect to utilize to its fullest capacity the organization which lends itself so easily for such ends. If a school wishes to inculcate a sense of responsibility in its pupils it should place responsibility upon them and allow them to make decisions for themselves. In one high school, a member asked the student council to discuss the possibility of changing the school paper from a mimeographed sheet to a printed copy. A committee was chosen to investigate. A few weeks later, the committee presented a report including the feasibility of the project and the cost, and giving its

own recommendations. As a result, the council voted to print the paper and choose a committee to work with the staff, and then made plans to raise the money. In an efficient council many plans could be made for the betterment of the school. In one plan it was agreed to run and supervise Saturday-night dances, in order to provide better social life for the pupils of the school. A record player was purchased and plans made for providing chaperones and supervision. In one school, the problem of trampling on the school lawn was discussed. By the time the discussion was over, the problem had become enlarged to consider the care and consideration of the property of others. As a result, plans were made for a campaign to insure better care not only for the school lawn but also for the lawns and property of the residents and organizations of the community. While these projects do not come from the social-studies classroom, they are social and civic problems and their solution is in harmony with the aims and objectives of the social studies.

Pupil Planning and the Teacher in the Project

Much stress is placed today on pupil planning in the school. Some educators have gone to an extreme and have advocated pupil planning in every classroom. It has, however, been pointed out that the objectives of education should be viewed in their entirety. Pupils need knowledge and understanding. They also need to develop traits that are inherent in group planning. Pupils develop a sense of responsibility by having responsibilities placed upon them. To be able to work together as a group is an aim worthy of accomplishment. To accept and work for a civic goal in the school community is exceedingly desirable. The inculcation of these traits, however, is not the sole work of any one class or group of classes. It would be foolish to expect the civic behavior of the school to depend entirely on the civics or social-studies classes. Of course, if the school is seeking a civic goal, the civics classes would be expected to be vitally interested and give impetus to the movement. However, the entire school program must play its part in this responsibility, which is social education.

In the definition of a project advanced in this chapter, no narrow view must be taken of pupil planning. Much vague thinking has arisen by stressing too much the idea of pupil initiative and control. It is true that pupils may plan, inaugurate, and accomplish projects with no help from the teacher, but often he will be the unseen prompter in all the activity. The teacher may even suggest the project. The pupils must accept it as their own, however, before it becomes a project to them. It is the work of superior teaching to set before the pupils worth-while tasks that they accept and feel to be their own. Even after the plan has been accepted, the

teacher's work may not be over, for his suggestions and aid may be necessary. For example, if a class has decided to undertake the responsibility of an assembly program, the pupils may have come to the decision entirely of their own volition. Immediately the class will be confronted with the task of arranging the program. Probably many suggestions will be made. Undoubtedly, the teacher will be asked to give his ideas. The teacher can now give valuable suggestions as to details necessary for the success of the venture. Indeed, the teacher may regard himself as one of the group and may aid up to a point short of domination. It is needless to say that the teacher in all this work should keep himself in the background as much as possible and not undertake any responsibility that can be taken by the pupils. If the school morale is high and the assembly program has attained a high standard, pupils will desire the teacher to pass judgment on the caliber of their production.

It cannot be overstressed that the teacher should not inject himself too much into the project. Too often teachers have suggested projects and then, when these were not wholeheartedly approved by the pupils, have insisted on their acceptance. If pupils do not accept the project as their own, the teacher had better drop the matter or try to educate the pupils to its desirability. Classes vary in their sense of responsibility. Some have high civic ideals and are ready to undertake worth-while projects; others are rather apathetic to civic improvement. Even student councils, which generally represent the best elements in the school, vary considerably in their civic responsiveness. Some have high morale and standards; others are lower in ideals and lack a real sense of responsibility. Naturally, some of them are full of ideas for the betterment of their school, while others are content to drift along. Much depends on the student leadership. At all times the sponsor should place as much responsibility upon the members of the group as they can assume. If the sense of responsibility is low, he has an opportunity of working with them and educating them to the highest point they can go.

The Problem Method in the Social Studies

Although there are points of similarity between the project and the problem, the differences are quite marked. The project differs, in that it demands a practical accomplishment in a real situation. The problem, on the other hand, emphasizes the mental conclusion that is drawn. Of course, the pupil may present his conclusion to the class; but the distinguishing mark of the problem, as against the project, is that the situation does not demand action. To sum it up, in the project, the activity, both mental and physical, leads to the accomplishment of a task; in the problem, the activity involved leads to a mental solution.

Unlike the project, the problem method can play an important part in history and the other social studies. The objectives in these subjects emphasize understanding and reasoning power, and this method lends itself well to their attainment. From the point of view of pupil interest and training, there is also much to justify the method. Teachers who have used the procedure have been quite enthusiastic about results. It enables the pupil to unify his knowledge and to understand the significance of what he is studying.

Different types of problems may be used under the method. Events of history raise a problem in the mind of the pupil and challenge his thinking. For example, the question might arise, "Why were the English more successful colonists than the French?" Then there are problems that have faced the individuals of the past, which the pupil can go over vicariously. For instance, "How did Hamilton meet the financial crises that faced the new government?" However, the greatest benefit of the procedure lies with the problems that have not been solved but for which the pupil may attempt to find a solution. Here the pupil comes into contact with many facts bearing on the problem, realizes that they may tend toward different conclusions, and then arrives at his own solution. The question, "Is capitalism superior to socialism?" may present such a challenge. Problems might be worked out in such a way that they touch closely the life of the pupil. For example, if food prices in the school cafeteria were increased, the problem might shape up as follows: "Why are food prices rising?" In a family-living course, the problem could become exceedingly personal and might shape up as: "How can I get along better with my family?"

Problem Procedures

The problem method may be used in various ways. The course may be so arranged that short problems will arise during the daily lesson and be solved with little effort. Another plan is that in which the teacher organizes each lesson around a few well-chosen problems. Then again, attention may be directed to problems that will take much longer to solve. Many successful plans have been carried out in organizing the entire course into a series of problems. This has been done quite frequently for the course in American history. Many have criticized the organization of a course in history on the basis of problems because the procedure does not correspond to a strict definition of a problem. This criticism will be taken up later. However, the use of problem courses warrants a discussion of them at this time. If the teacher wishes to organize a course on such a basis, he must consider a number of things. The age, ability, and interests of the pupils are especially significant. What will work with one group may not work with another.

A tentative list of problems for a course in American history is as follows:

1. How did America come to be discovered?
2. What did the early explorers learn about the new world?
3. How did the English come to establish colonies in America?
4. How did the English force the French out of America?
5. How did the American colonies win independence?
6. Why did the United States adopt a Constitution?
7. How was the credit of the new nation established?
8. Why did the United States fight England a second time?
9. How did the United States come to occupy so large an extent of territory?
10. How did the Monroe Doctrine become a powerful policy?
11. How did the United States become more democratic?
12. Why did the tariff issue cause so much controversy?
13. How did industry and invention aid in the development of the country?
14. Why did so many people move westward?
15. Why did the United States divide into two hostile sections?
16. How was the nation reunited?
17. What has become of the Indian in America?
18. How did America become a great industrial nation?
19. Why are capital and labor so often at strife?
20. How has communication improved American life?
21. Why did the United States curtail immigration?
22. Why was Civil Service reform necessary?
23. How has the United States attained a prominent place in world affairs?
24. Why has the government assumed more and more control in the domestic affairs of the nation?
25. How did the United States become involved in the First World War?
26. Why did the United States enter the Second World War?
27. What must the United States do to promote world peace?

In organizing a course in European history, the following partial list of problems may be suggestive for the modern period:

1. How did France become a republic?
2. How did Germany become a great united nation?
3. How did Italy unite to form a modern nation?
4. How did England become a democratic nation?

5. How did England become a great empire?
6. Why does Russia have a Soviet form of government?
7. Why did the Balkans cause so much trouble in Europe?
8. Why are there no strong nations in Africa?
9. What caused the First World War?
10. Why was there a Second World War?
11. How can the world organize for peace?

In a course in civics, the following problems constitute a few selected examples:

1. What does American citizenship mean?
2. Why are there different people and different groups in our community?
3. What does the community do to protect our lives and property?
4. How can we attain a well-rounded life?
5. What does the community do in helping to build character?
6. What is meant by public opinion in government?
7. How are our governments financed?
8. In what ways has man conquered time and space?
9. How are human needs satisfied?
10. How does government aid and control business?

In the study of economics, the following problems are illustrative of what may be done in this field:

1. How is man today extremely dependent upon his fellow men for his existence?
2. Why have capital and labor become so highly organized?
3. How do men pay for goods and services?
4. How are products and goods distributed?
5. In what respects has the Industrial Revolution changed our manner of living?
6. What are the various means of making a living?
7. How do we support the government financially?
8. How does the government help us?
9. How has man made economic progress?
10. What are the underlying principles of economic cooperation?

The problems enumerated in the foregoing courses do not require a pupil to come to a personal solution. Although a problem may be created in the mind of the pupil, he comes to the solution, not by any decision of

his own, but by an aggregate amount of information that enlightens him in gaining the understanding. As has been indicated, some teachers do not regard such a procedure as the true problem method. They hold that it cannot be a problem unless the pupil comes to a mental decision or arrives at a personal solution, whether right or wrong. The courses in history are not so adaptable for the use of this type of problem, although they may be used. Such a question as: "Was the United States to blame for the failure of the League of Nations?" may present a challenge of this kind. The nonhistorical social studies, however, lend themselves to such a procedure. Indeed some have advocated that the course in problems of democracy be based on a series of such problems. For example, the teacher or the class could pick out for study the important problems that confront American life and then work for an individual or a class solution. For example, problems like the following might be chosen:

1. Is the cost of living too high?
2. Should the federal government aid education?
3. Are labor unions too powerful?
4. Can the schools improve family life?
5. Should we return to prohibition?
6. Is it right that the government aid housing?

Of course, many of the problems that merely require information can be changed into ones that require solutions. For example, many of those previously mentioned in the courses in civics and economics could be changed into a solvable experience. Take the one, "How do we support the government financially?" This could be changed to read: "Are the taxes we pay fair?" The information necessary for the first would be needed for the second in order to make it possible to come to a conclusion. However, even if the problem remained as in the economics list, the wide-awake teacher could include some of the features which challenge the mind of the pupil.

The Problem-solving Procedure

From the preceding discussion, it is seen that there are two main types of problems. The first requires little or no reasoning on the part of the pupil. In such a problem, he could suspend judgment until he secured from the textbook or other books a ready-made conclusion with its supporting propositions. This is often true for courses organized on a problem basis. The second type requires reflective thinking that challenges the mind of the pupil and, as a result, ends in a conclusion or solution. This section will concern itself with the second type of procedure.

In the consideration of this type of problem it is appropriate to note the words of John Dewey on reflective thought. He conveniently divides reflective thinking into five aspects or phases. These are:

(1) *Suggestions*, in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution; (2) an intellectualization of the difficulty or perplexity that has been *felt* (directly experienced) into a *problem* to be solved, a question for which the answer must be sought; (3) the use of one suggestion after another as a leading idea, or *hypothesis*, to initiate and guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material; (4) the mental elaboration of the idea or supposition as an idea or supposition (*reasoning*, in the sense in which reasoning is a part, not the whole, of inference); and (5) testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action.³

From the point of view of reflective thinking, the solving of a problem would follow a fixed procedure of thought. In the social studies this may be summed up as follows:

1. Defining the problem
2. Formulating hypotheses for its solution
3. Testing and judging the various hypotheses
4. Arriving at a conclusion

Many problems in the social studies will be found to be susceptible to only two hypotheses. For example, we may take the problem: "Was Jackson's invasion of Florida justifiable?" In the solution of this problem, only two hypotheses are possible—yes and no. All the facts, therefore, would be brought to bear on these two. This naturally would bring in such material as the condition of the Indians in the region, the activity of the British agents, the obligations of the treaty of 1795, the attitude of the United States government before the invasion, international law, the Spanish administration of the peninsula, and Jackson's desires. By bringing these facts to bear on the hypotheses, a conclusion would be reached. Of course, one could possibly arrive at a solution that Jackson was partly right and partly wrong in his invasion of Florida.

In other problems, many hypotheses would present themselves to the mind, and the conclusion would be reached by rejecting some and accepting others. For example, we might raise the problem: "Why was Tyler anxious to annex Texas, 1843 to 1845?" In the beginning of the solution the following hypotheses might be formulated:

1. Tyler was afraid that Texas would change her attitude on annexation.
2. He believed that Mexico would attempt to win back the province.

³ JOHN DEWEY, *How We Think* (Boston, 1933), p. 107.

3. He was afraid that England or France would take it.
4. He did not want another republic in North America.
5. He wanted to pick a quarrel with Mexico.
6. He wanted more slave territory.
7. He had political ambitions.

As the facts are applied to these hypotheses, some will prove to be false and some true. Out of those which are correct will come the solution to the problem.

Although the steps of procedure outlined above are generally followed as distinct phases in the solving of a problem, it is possible that, in the search for data on the original hypotheses set up, other suggestions for solving the problem may arise which would result in establishing new hypotheses. These, then, would have to be taken into account in arriving at a conclusion.

As has already been indicated, this procedure is best used on the unsolved problems of today. Although it is true that experts will differ in their conclusions on these problems, it is better for pupils to form their opinions of these on some sort of reasoning, rather than on propaganda or prejudice. For example, the attempt to solve such problems as the following might result in an electorate better able to cope with the problems of the future:

Is government control the solution of our economic ills?

Should socialized medicine be adopted in the United States?

Is the city-manager form of government the best plan for our cities?

A word of caution is necessary in connection with a discussion of such problems in the classroom. It is the duty of the teacher to emphasize that they are unsolved and that the best minds differ on their solution. The writer has witnessed classes that have become quite heated and partisan in a discussion of a local problem. One definite outcome ought to be sought, and that is respect for the opinion of those who differ. If such an outcome were to be diligently sought in our schools, perhaps we should in the next generation have less mass hysteria, prejudice, and intolerance in American life.

General Principles of Problem Solving

Much has been written about the technique of problem solving. Some of it has already been touched upon in the foregoing discussion. There are, however, four general principles that the teacher should bear in mind.

1. *The Pupil Must Feel the Problem His Own.* He must feel its challenge to his thinking. It has already been intimated that this does not

mean that the teacher must follow entirely the leads of the pupils. Such a procedure would result in educational anarchy in the classroom. Many of the problems that arise spontaneously in the minds of the members of the class might not be worth solving. Much poor instruction has resulted from following the listless wanderings of the class. Good teaching is a great deal more than simply having an interested class. It must include interest plus values. The real teacher is he who can so guide the thinking of the class that the problems he desires to have solved will in some form or other arise in the minds of the pupils. Naturally, other problems unforeseen by the teacher may arise that may have intrinsic worth. These also can be utilized. The teacher, however, must always have his objectives in view. The class period is no time to experiment with a hit-and-miss procedure.

2. *The Problem Must Be Stated Definitely.* After the class has come to feel the problem as its own, the teacher must next see that it is stated in definite terms and constantly held before the pupils. This may seem superfluous, but it is important because pupils forget so easily. Even though the class has felt and sensed the problem, a half hour's discussion or the searching of a reference may make them lose sight of the real problem or even forget it. This is true of adult life. How often in a public meeting where a particular question is being discussed do we see the speakers constantly digressing. With the problem clearly defined, the teacher is able to keep the class on the work at hand. This is good for its own sake, because it aids the pupils to think clearly and to concentrate deeply. With the problem well defined and continually before them, the pupils are able to keep it in mind when working on the references.

3. *Selecting the Materials for Solving the Problem.* The third step concerns itself with the material necessary to solve the problem. This may begin with a class discussion. If the pupils have had the opportunity to understand the background of the problem, they will all have some views on it. The teacher must decide how much he will contribute to this background. It is certain that the teacher should not have his class laboriously searching out minor details that he can easily give. How much the teacher will assist the class in finding outside material is also a question that he must decide. With the younger classes, he may have to be rather specific in his references. Pages will have to be assigned, and material specifically pointed out. With the more mature pupils, especially those who have had a background in the subject, the teacher may be less specific and more suggestive. One guiding principle must be kept in mind: the means of solving the problem must not be vague to the pupil, or much of the value of the procedure will be lost. The more mature pupils should have progressed far enough to be able to use an index, understand a table of

contents, and plan the means for the solution of the problem. Another question that confronts the teacher is the amount of material that will be necessary for solving the problem. Conditioned by the materials at hand, this is largely a question of selection, for the materials that may be applied to the solution of most problems are too vast for any high-school pupil. Herein lies an opportunity for the teacher to make a judicious selection that will develop in the pupil such traits as open-mindedness and suspended judgment. For example, in a problem dealing with the American Revolution, through the use of references containing the traditional story, a pupil may come to the conclusion that England was entirely to blame. References to other viewpoints should cause him to revise his judgment and should also aid in the cultivation of an open mind. When we realize the importance of the development of ideals and attitudes, as against the memorization of facts, the worth of the preceding statement becomes evident.

4. *Solutions Must Be Definite and Clear.* The final step concerns the conclusions reached. The solution to the problem must not remain dangling in the minds of the pupils. The conclusions reached must be definite. Many means may be employed in securing this definiteness. One of the pupils may summarize the conclusion before the class and then have the class evaluate and criticize it until it is in acceptable form. The pupils may also write out the conclusion. In so doing many hazy ideas often become clear. Certain problems, of course, cannot be definitely solved. Yet even in these, some concrete conclusions must be reached, though the problems remain unsolved. The pupil should come to a conclusion on the basis of his reading and of the class discussion. If pupils disagree in their conclusions, the reasons for their differences may be brought out, but respect must be shown for each pupil's solution.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Problem Method

Many advantages are claimed for the problem method. Some of these are very important, for they conform to the highest aims of teaching. Among the more significant advantages are the following:

1. It conforms to life. Everyone is confronted with problems all through life. Why should we not master the technique for solving problems in the school?

2. It arouses interest and hence aids in the educative process.

3. It leads pupils to form judgments. This is of vital importance in a democracy, where the success of government rests in the final analysis with the people.

4. It makes for pupil activity. This has been the cry of educators since

the opening of the century. The pupils change from passive members of a class into an active class.

5. It challenges the intellect of the pupil rather than his memory.

6. It does much to destroy the credulous belief in the printed page. In solving the problem, the teacher can place different types of material before the pupil.

7. It permits the pupil to get thought from the printed page.

8. It enables the pupil to evaluate the printed page, thereby distinguishing between primary and secondary sources or between what is authentic and what is not.

9. It develops the traits of open-mindedness and tolerance. The pupil finds that there is more than one side to a question.

On the other hand, there have been many criticisms of the problem method. Some of these have already been mentioned. The objection has been raised that it does not lend itself to a broad understanding of the subject. This is more pertinent to the study of history than to the other social studies. History is a subject of continuity, and the hit-and-miss procedure of a series of problems may be reasonably questioned. However, this criticism pertains to the abuse rather than to the use of the method. The teacher must have definitely in mind what understandings he desires his pupils to have at the end of the course. The use of the problem method must, then, be in harmony with these desired outcomes. If this is kept in mind, the teacher will find that he can profitably make a liberal use of the procedure.

It has also been argued that the method proves harmful to a sane reading of books. The pupil will read a chapter, not to get at its meaning, but to choose that which will give him his answer. If all courses were organized on a problem basis, this would be a serious disadvantage. However, if a pupil knows how to study, there is no objection to this method in the solution of a problem. Both may be used at different times. One teacher reports excellent results in a plan of this sort. The pupils first studied the chapter, after which a discussion took place. The problems that arose out of the discussion were then assigned. In working out the solutions, the class got the essentials a second time; and from the pupil's point of view, it enabled the members of the class to see that history was not merely a mass of detail.

The objection has sometimes been raised that problems may degenerate into nothing more than busy work, with unimportant results. This is not really a criticism of the method but rather an indictment against the teacher. There is real danger of this—a danger that must be avoided. Problems must be more than interesting. They must be significant and com-

prehensive, and the pupil must see their value. It is the duty of the teacher to guide his pupils to worth-while problems.

Many have condemned the problem as nothing more than the old topic worded differently. It is evident that there is no value in merely adding "Who," "What," or "Why" to the old topic. Motivation, after all, is the significant approach to the problem. However, it is well to remember that there are different types of problems.

In view of the advantages of the method, it seems that every teacher of the social studies should study the procedure carefully and make some use of it—how much use will depend on many things. First, it must be borne in mind that life is not made up entirely of problems. It is well also to keep in mind that there cannot be only one method in teaching the social studies. Whether or not a course should be based entirely on problems depends on the aims and objectives and the total program of the school. If, for example, it is deemed unwise to base a history course on problems because of the violation to the sense of continuity, this does not mean that the problem should be ignored by the teacher. There are many ways of using the method that can overcome the objection. The teacher could arrange his course according to topics and make very effective use of the problem.

Many teachers have found it advantageous to give problems as assignments. Under the tutelage of the teacher, problems will arise during the class discussion that cannot be solved at the moment, on account of insufficient knowledge. These can be assigned to the class or to individual pupils. After the pupils have solved them, the problems can be presented to the class for discussion. The value in such an assignment lies in its definiteness. There is a goal toward which to work; and if the problem has arisen in class, there is the inner urge to reach the goal. The teacher must see to it that the means of solving the problem are not beyond the ability of the pupils. In the lower grades of the secondary school, this may take the definite form of assigning a certain number of pages in which the material can be found for solving the problem. In the senior high school, the pupils should be able to work out their own procedures and techniques for attacking and solving the problem.

Even in ordinary textbook teaching, the assignments can be made in the form of problems. There are still too many teachers whose assignments are made in terms of so many pages, without any instruction as to how the pupils are to master the material. If the teacher would indicate what the pupils are expected to know when the pages are assigned, much better results might be obtained. This is especially true for the average and below-average pupil. So many of these read conscientiously, yet, when they come to class, know little or nothing of the deeper meanings of what

they have read. For example, instead of assigning pages on the origin of the United States Constitution, let the teacher suggest that when reading the text each pupil should do his best to answer the question, "Why was it necessary to have a new Constitution?" Better results would ensue. Every assignment might be made on the basis of one or more problems.

Another way in which the problem method has been effectively used in the subject of history without destroying the sense of continuity is the plan whereby the first part of the course is given over to a rapid chronological survey of the main elements of the course. About two-thirds of the school year is devoted to this survey. The remainder of the time is then given to a study of the major problems inherent in the course. The chief value in such a procedure lies in the fact that the pupils will have a background in the subject upon which they can begin to solve the problems. For example, in a course in American history, after the essentials have been mastered, a problem may arise in connection with the disputes between capital and labor. The problem may be formulated by the class under the guidance of the teacher. Without the rapid survey, the procedure of solving it would not be so meaningful to the pupil, for its deeper relationships in the scheme of history would not be understood. Many of our leading contemporary questions may be taken up under such a plan as this. There are issues concerning the tariff and the problems that center in imperialism. All these become more significant when seen in their historical setting. There is much educational advantage in this procedure, for the pupil not only receives the benefit from solving the problem, but the important facts and principles that were brought out in the survey of the course are seen in new relations and therefore are better understood.

Group Work in Problem Solving

Many modifications of the problem method have been devised and used. Enough has been said of the main plans to give a general idea of the subject. One device, however, is worth mentioning in that it introduces the element of group work. Many have advocated the cooperation of the members of a group in solving a major problem for the sake of learning the important lesson of working together. Many plans have been devised for group work. In one of these, a class, after a discussion on the topic of the day, formulates a major problem. After preliminary discussion, the teacher divides the class into several groups. Each of these forms a unit, in an individual attempt to solve the problem. The members of each group pool the material that they already have and then go about their work of seeking the solution. After a period of independent study, the members of each group come together and upon a basis of their find-

ings formulate a solution. Finally, the class comes together, and the solution from each group is presented and discussed until a class solution is formulated. A liberal use of the blackboard is generally necessary in arriving at a satisfactory conclusion. In another plan, each group is assigned a different phase of a major problem to study. The groups then come together and pool their resources in order to reach a class conclusion. In still another plan, each group is assigned a different problem. The class is then able to discuss and criticize the solutions to many problems.

Many advantages have been claimed for such group work. It is true that it may develop the habit of cooperation. However, it has its dangers. Unless great care is taken, not only will no advantage accrue but also undesirable traits may be fostered. It is human nature, even when the motivation is strong, to try to get someone else to do the work. In group work, whenever references are to be looked up, there will always be the tendency to shift the task to the shoulders of others. Then again, someone always has to head the group; and if he is not exceedingly clever, he will find himself doing all the work. The writer recalls an excellent example of this. A class was divided into groups, and a problem was assigned to each unit. In one group were six individuals, three of whom were decidedly mediocre in ability. The brightest member of the group was chosen chairman. The group started out with discussion, which was made up largely of digressions. Finally, an assignment was made to each individual in the group, with the intention of having the chairman work the findings of each into a harmonious whole. When it came time to assemble the work, however, the effort of the mediocre members was so poor and incomprehensible that the chairman and the other two members of the group decided to eliminate it altogether. As a result, it was agreed among the three that they would divide the problem among themselves. The final result was that the work was done almost entirely by the chairman. To add fuel to the fire, the instructor pronounced the solution of the problem excellent and a good example of group work. This is just an illustration that proves that in school life all things are not what they seem and that pupils may take a keen delight in "fooling the teacher." That does not mean, of course, that all group work cannot succeed. Many teachers have had great success in endeavors of this kind. It does emphasize the fact, however, that the work requires a superior type of teaching and direction.

In recent years much emphasis has been placed on pupil planning. In this procedure, the pupils will decide on what problems they will take up and then make plans on how they will proceed. Under the guidance of the teacher, committees are formed and phases of the problem assigned. Naturally, the best results are obtained under a laboratory system, where

materials are available and the work is centralized. Such a plan would work best in a problems-of-democracy course or some similar one. Those who have worked out such a course are loud in its praise. In such a method the teacher is much in the background. However, motivation is very essential. It is the task of the teacher to lead his pupils in choosing the most important problems from the point of view of educational value. The greatest criticism of the procedure is that it is time-consuming and that the number of problems that may be discussed in the course is much smaller than by other methods. The traits inculcated, however, are desirable and the values must be judged by the total school program. It would be a mistake to base all or a major portion of our school program on such a basis. The school must encourage pupil planning and pupil initiative. However, it must be kept in mind that there are other objectives that must be attained, as well.

Summary

Much confusion has arisen in the minds of teachers concerning the project method. This is because of the fact that various activities have been confused with the project. In this chapter, the project has been defined as a pupil-planned, purposeful task in a real situation. The study of history is ill adapted to the method, the other social studies offer more opportunities for its use. The procedure has received much commendation because of its emphasis on pupil planning and execution. The teacher, however, plays an important part in motivation and guidance.

The problem differs from the project in that the emphasis is on the mental solution reached rather than on a practical accomplishment. The problem is important in all the social studies. The problem may be used incidentally during the course, or the course may be organized entirely on a problem basis. The organization of courses, especially history, on such a basis has been criticized because it does not conform to a true definition of problem solving. Real problem solving involves reflective thinking, which is accomplished through a stated procedure. Many advantages are claimed for the problem method. There have been criticisms, but the good points far outweigh anything that can be said against it. The problem is conducive to group work, although the dangers in this have to be watched if good educational results are to be obtained.

Questions

1. Why is there so much confusion over the definition of a project?
2. How could a play become part of a project?
3. Show how the study of history is ill adapted to the project method.
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of pupil planning?
5. What is the teacher's part in a project and in a problem?

6. Show the difference between a project and a problem.
7. Indicate the advantages and disadvantages of arranging a course on the basis of problems.
8. Describe the two main types of problems as they affect reasoning.
9. Work out a list of problems for a course in problems of democracy.
10. Name the steps in reflective thinking involved in problem solving.
11. What general principles should the teacher keep in mind in problem solving?
12. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the problem method?
13. Show the values and dangers in group work.

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CHAPTER VI

SUPERVISED STUDY

What Is Supervised Study?

For many years supervised study as a method occupied an important place in American educational literature. Its importance was emphasized by the attacks on the old-time recitation with its faults and failures. It also won much favor in that its proponents did not advocate it to the exclusion of all other methods but generally associated its use with other procedures. During recent years, fewer references have been made to the method, although its importance has not diminished. Continually educators mention "directed study" or "directed learning" in their work. The newer methods which emphasize other aspects of the learning process include phases of supervised study.

Although the term seems self-explanatory, it may be wise at the start to define the word. By supervised study, we mean the supervision by the teacher of a group or a class of pupils as they work at their desks or around their tables. In this procedure, we find pupils busy at work that has been assigned them by the teacher. When they meet a difficulty that they cannot overcome, they ask the teacher for direction and assistance. The teacher, when not called upon, walks quietly up and down the classroom or remains at his desk, watching the pupils do their work, continually on the alert for any wrong procedures that the pupils may follow. He is always ready to direct and aid them.

Sometimes a broader meaning is given to the term "supervised study." Besides that given in the preceding paragraph, it is made to include all the other activities that may be taken up in the class under the name of this teaching technique. The term would then include supervised study proper, the teacher's assignments, socialized procedures, and forms of recitation that may be used in conjunction with this method. In this sense, a socialized recitation or a discussion might be included in the supervised-study lesson. For the sake of clearness, however, we shall confine our remarks in this chapter to the meaning stated in the restricted definition of the term.

It is not to be supposed that the supervised study that has been defined is the only type of supervision possible. Many high schools have a large study hall where a hundred or more pupils assemble each period

under one or two teachers. Some educators have condemned the procedure and see but little of educational value in it. However, it is possible that, under a capable teacher, many of the features of supervised study can be introduced. Ways can be devised for helping pupils, even though they are studying various subjects. Of course, in the hands of a weak teacher, the large study hall may degenerate into a waste of time. Later on in the chapter, a detailed account of its successful operation will be described.

Supervised Study and Individual Differences

Supervised study is an aid in helping to solve the problem of individual differences. Indeed, many of its exponents base the superiority of the method upon this claim. The traditional form of class instruction ignored the problem entirely. Individuals have different abilities and capacities, yet the practice has been to make all conform to a group standard. Broadly speaking, with full recognition that each pupil is different from every other, the average class contains three groups—the slow, the average, and the bright. In the ordinary classroom recitation, the teacher usually bases his instruction on what will fit one group, with the result that the other two groups must necessarily suffer. For example, the teacher prepares for the average group, with the result that the pace is too rapid for the slow ones, whereas the work is so easy for the bright pupils that their ability is never challenged.

A glaring illustration of the evils in such a procedure as this was brought to the attention of the writer some time ago. In a certain large school system, the ability of a teacher is rated on the percentage of his pupils above the median mark for the whole system in each particular subject. One of the instructors in this system remarked that to get a high rating required only a little ingenuity on the part of the teacher. In an average class, some would never be able to reach the median mark. These could be safely neglected by the teacher in seeking a high rating. There were those also whose work would be higher than the median mark, regardless of the instructor or the type of instruction. These also could largely be neglected or simply encouraged to keep on achieving. The teacher, therefore, devoted his energies and instruction to the average group, which was hovering about the median line, in order to be sure that as many as possible would find their places far above the line. Such procedures as this are all too common, though not always with the aforementioned motive. Teachers are often satisfied if the majority of pupils reach a happy mediocrity.

The need for reform in the old lesson-hearing or lesson-testing type of recitation is evident in the results of that method. The old way, although

still used in many schools, is not conducive to the learning process. It does not make the pupil think or train his abilities for independent study. Responsibility for learning must be placed on the pupil. Learning must become his quest. In this, he can proceed only on his own level, which means on his own abilities and capabilities. This is where supervised study is a valuable procedure. Each pupil proceeds on his own responsibility; but in order that he should not become lost or discouraged, the teacher guides and directs him until he becomes independent and efficient in his study.

Another evil in the old lesson-hearing recitation is the waste of time that it entails. Even if it is assumed that there is a value in "hearing lessons," much time is wasted in correcting errors. Undoubtedly, the individual pupil profits in having a mistake righted; but if the rest of the class know the right answer, it is of little value for them to listen to the correction. If, on the other hand, a question is so difficult that few can answer it, only the bright pupils are challenged and usually the rest of the class receive little benefit. How often are pupils subjected to such procedures! Quite frequently, a pupil sits in a class and listens to the correction of errors of others, and the few that he himself may be guilty of making are never discovered. The recitation to him, therefore, is a waste of time. A conspicuous case of this sort was seen recently. A pupil in one of the lower grades was having great trouble with her arithmetic. Her marks were low, month after month. Upon investigation, the trouble was found to reside in one or two simple errors, which she made continually. Many of the errors committed by the pupils had been taken up in class, but those particular mistakes had not. It was, therefore, of no avail to send the child home, night after night, with a dozen problems, as was done, in the hope that she would learn her arithmetic lessons. What she needed was the correction of her simple errors. This is what supervised study aims to do—to help pupils overcome their individual mistakes.

The percentage of youth enrolled in our secondary schools has been constantly increasing. As a result, the schools of today have many pupils who, under previous conditions, would be found in industry. Most of these pupils have difficulty in mastering the courses in the school and, consequently, find school life irksome. Much of the difficulty might be found in their reading deficiencies. To what extent this condition can be overcome is a question. In some studies, it has been shown that there is a close connection between the intelligence quotient of a pupil and his reading ability. Many schools have embarked upon a program of remedial reading and have claimed much success. However, we do not have enough evidence to show to what extent the skills taught in the remedial classes have been carried over by the pupils to the regular classes in the content

subjects. Among the causes for poor reading we may list dislike for reading, lack of background, slow rate of reading, inability to get thought from the printed page, and lack of mental ability. The supervised-study program does give the teacher an opportunity to observe his class and plan for the correction and aid of those pupils who possess the deficiencies.

The average textbook, especially in history, is far beyond the poor reader. Unfortunately, little has been done in supplying this type of pupil with proper reading material. The best that the teacher can do is to use what little there is to the greatest advantage. One teacher got good results by using a seventh-grade textbook in the eleventh grade. This, however, is not usually the solution. In the nonhistorical social studies, there is more material adapted to the needs of these pupils than in history. A few books and pamphlets have appeared in the social studies that have recognized the needs of the poor reader. However, much more thought should be given to the problem of providing the materials necessary for this group.

The Problem of Home Study

One problem that frequently comes up in connection with supervised study is that of the work of pupils outside the classroom, especially homework. Many of the advocates of supervised study have come to the conclusion that all study outside the school should either be abolished or be greatly curtailed and that supervised study in the classroom removes the necessity for home assignments. At least one thing is certain: the whole matter, from the point of view of the teacher, the parent, and the pupil, is a problem of importance. Yet until quite recently the practice in most of the high schools has been to base class recitations almost entirely on home study.

Many parents have justly become thoroughly disgusted with the difficulties encountered by pupils in preparing their lessons at home and have wondered what their children do in school all day. The story that appeared in one of our magazines some time ago awakens a chord of sympathy and understanding in many a parent. According to this story, a hard-working widow complained to a superintendent of schools that, after a day of toil, she was forced at night to teach her four children the lessons that they were to recite to the teacher the next day. There is humor as well as pathos in the plea of the widow that the teachers should teach her little girls their lessons during the day and that she would hear them recite at night.

We might reasonably ask the question concerning what teachers expect to accomplish when they assign homework. Is it done merely because it is the custom, or is there a specific object in view? Do teachers

realize the time that may be consumed by the pupils in such study, especially by the slowest members of the class? Do they anticipate the difficulties that may be met? Do they consider the educational advantages that may or may not be obtained? The writer's attention was called recently to a conspicuous example of the futility of much of the homework. The teacher of a second-year class in junior high school in geography assigned for homework the list of questions that appeared at the bottom of a section of the textbook. The questions were supposed to be based on the section. One of the brightest girls in the class, who was the daughter of an educator, started to work on the list of questions at home. She got along fairly well until she reached a question concerning the making of a certain article. She read over the section but could not find the answer. She read over preceding sections but still was unable to solve the problem. After an hour of fruitless search, she turned to her father for aid. He could not answer it and was unable to find the answer in the text. At last the father found the answer for the girl in an encyclopedia. This, of course, is an extreme example, but it is indicative of the difficulties that often confront pupils in preparing their lessons at home.

Other questions that a teacher may well ponder concern the way in which a pupil does his homework and what kind of help he obtains in doing it. Does the pupil attack the problem in the most economical way? Does he spend an hour in doing that which he should do in fifteen minutes? Does he possess a well-developed technique in solving his problems? Can we expect a pupil to get out of a ten-page assignment the knowledge that he is supposed to acquire, if we do not train him in procedures of study? Again, we may ask what happens when the pupil meets a difficulty in the assignment. It should be borne in mind that in general we all move along the lines of least resistance and that it requires something challenging to hold us to a task. What a pupil generally does when he meets a difficulty is to get someone else to do the task for him. It is too much to expect the parents or friends who help the pupils with their homework to explain the method by which the difficulty can be overcome. In the first place, it is much easier for them to perform the task than to explain the difficulty. Again, these home helpers do not have the technique to explain the help that they have given. Then the explanation, if given, might be so different from the method of the teacher that the pupil would only be confused. At any rate, what the pupil usually desires is to get the work done.

Many teachers would be surprised if they knew the various means that pupils take in getting their assignments completed. Some time ago, the writer visited the home of a high-school sophomore. The girl triumphantly brought out a paper that she had written on George Washington, for

which she had received a high grade. The paper was the result of a home assignment of the previous week. She then unblushingly explained how she had come to write a good paper. She had copied, with some modifications, certain extracts from an old encyclopedia that she had at home. The very fact that some of the sentences did not fit well together deceived the teacher into thinking that it was the pupil's own work. This girl did not think for a moment that she had done anything unethical; indeed, she believed she had done something extremely clever.

In connection with the problem of home study, the question arises as to whether or not the home is a good place in which to study. Too many homes are becoming less and less suitable for such a purpose. Not many parents can provide their children with a quiet place to study. Distractions are legion. The old-fashioned home, where all the family sat down after supper in the living room to read or to engage in other silent avocations, is gone forever. Constant interruptions disturb anyone who is trying to concentrate. Noise abounds on every hand. The evening radio program is a fixture in many homes. Television is taking more and more of the leisure time of pupils. Then again, there is more social activity for the young folk of today than ever before. It is surprising, the number of evenings that young people spend away from home. The motion pictures, the social, the dance, the club—all draw upon the time of the pupil. In view of this, the home-study program merits much thought and careful consideration.

Every school administrator is well aware of the problem of home study. Complaints of parents are frequent in the average school and many of these are justified. Some teachers, in order to make their subjects seem important, give long assignments. A history teacher stated that he required at least an hour of preparation for each of his lessons. Pupils, however, take four or five major subjects a day. Under such a program, the pupil would be required, if all the teachers felt the same way, to study out of class at least four or five hours. This is not the entire story, for different pupils do not accomplish the same work in a given time. It takes some pupils an hour to do what others can finish in twenty minutes.

There are also various levels of accomplishment. There is the over-zealous pupil, who must make sure that every item is correct, and there is the pupil whose parents insist on high marks. On the other hand, in the case of many students, home study is considered negligible or is carelessly done. The amount of time given to home study, therefore, varies to a great extent in a class. The problem is accentuated because of other demands on the pupil's time, such as music lessons and practice. Some schools, aware of the problem, discuss it in faculty meetings where all teachers decide what demands their subject should make in view of the

entire situation. As a result, quite frequently teachers of the social studies make their assignments on the unit or topic basis, covering a longer period of time—one or more weeks. Under such a procedure there is, of course, the danger that pupils may not schedule their time well and may leave the entire assignment to be hurriedly done on the last day.

In order to counteract conditions such as the foregoing, many educators and teachers today advocate a revision of methods in teaching in which supervised study will play an important part. Evidently the school is the place where studying can be done best. Under careful and efficient supervision, a pupil can do much more and better work in less time, especially if at the same time he is being trained in the techniques of study. Home study, then, should consist of those lighter tasks in which pupils find interest and enjoyment. In regard to the social studies, home study should consist largely of supplementary and collateral reading. Of course, such a procedure will require the reorganization of the entire school program. It will mean a longer school day, and it will add expense to the cost of operating the schools.

Plans of Supervised Study

Many plans have been evolved for the supervision of study. In general, we can divide them into two groups: (1) those which have to do with the supervision of pupils who are having difficulty with their work and are in danger of failing in their courses, and (2) those which have to do with supervised study as a class procedure. We shall now discuss these two groups in the order named.

The Conference Plan. Although the term "supervised study" is a recent one, the supervision of pupils who cannot keep up their work and are in danger of failing is not new. Conscientious teachers have ever sought to coach their weak pupils individually in order to bring them up to the standard. Out of such work has come the conference plan. Under this plan, the teacher remains in school each day for a period after classwork is over, in order that those pupils who are falling behind in their lessons may receive individual attention. In some cases, the plan is voluntary on the part of the teachers; in other cases, the principal or the superintendent requires this as part of the teachers' work. In some plans, the conferences are optional on the part of the pupil; in other plans, they are compulsory. Much good has been accomplished by such procedures in aiding weak pupils and thereby preventing failures.

The Special Teacher. Closely associated with the conference plan is the work of the special teacher, extra teacher, or study coach. Under this system, one teacher devotes his entire time to coaching or supervising pupils individually or in small groups. Pupils needing assistance or those

who are doing unsatisfactory work are required to meet the special teacher at stated hours. It is evident that this type of teaching calls for a person whose training and qualifications are far above average. Such teaching requires one who possesses deep, sympathetic understanding and also a wide knowledge of many subjects, although not so deep a knowledge as the individual teachers have of their respective subjects. Quite often the difficulties of a pupil arise through the lack of training in how to study, although they may be due to mental, physical, or other causes. A sound knowledge of the learning process and of the psychology of boys and girls is, therefore, as essential to the special teacher as is a wide range of subject matter.

The preceding plans deal with the supervised study of weak pupils or those who are failing in their work. The leading exponents of the method have a larger view of its usefulness. They advocate its use as a procedure for all pupils. Various plans have been evolved, most of them devoting part of the time to supervised study and part to other methods of instruction.

Supervised Study and the Study Hall. The term "supervised study" is sometimes applied to the activities carried on in the study hall. Care must be taken to distinguish between the work done during the study-hall period and supervised study in the classroom. Many schools have a large room called the study hall. Here the pupils who do not have a scheduled class come to study whatever they choose. The room is generally in charge of one or more teachers. In many schools, such a room is in no way associated with supervised study. The teacher in charge merely "polices" the room to prevent pupils from disturbing each other; and with large groups, the task is usually not an easy one. Because of the discipline problem, some have advocated measures tending to eliminate the large study hall.

There are many factors that favor the retention of the study hall. In the first place, to eliminate the procedure would require that the number of periods in the school day be reduced to a minimum in order that pupils be in classes all or nearly all the time. The greater the number of periods in the day, however, the more selection the pupil has in choosing his electives. Also, a well-disciplined study hall, even without any aspects of supervision of the actual work, is a much better place for study than is the average home. However, as has been indicated in the early part of the chapter, it is possible to use many of the aspects of supervision. The pupil needing help may be aided by the teacher or by another pupil. Quiet, of course, is a necessary requisite of such a procedure. If a pupil needs help from another, he should ask permission of the teacher and be as quick as possible in getting his aid. This is necessary to pre-

vent promiscuous talking. It is surprising how much help pupils can get from each other and from the teacher in a well-ordered study hall. It is important that everyone in the room be busy and have work to do. In inaugurating such a procedure, the teacher may find some in a large group who have nothing to do. For these it is wise to have books and magazines available, so that they may be engaged in profitable work. After a few sessions, these pupils generally bring their own work to the study hall. In all this activity, the teacher should avoid a teacher-versus-pupil attitude. In insistence upon silence among all those who are not seeking help, the emphasis should not be placed on the right of the teacher to an orderly room, but on the disturbance to the other pupils who are working. Many of the disciplinary problems of the teacher would disappear if he would align his wishes with those of the group. This is the art of successful teaching.

The best plans of supervised study have been evolved in conjunction with class instruction or class recitation. These plans do not limit the method to help the backward pupil but take into account all the pupils of the class. Although various forms have been devised to carry the plans into effect, they may be grouped into three divisions—divided periods, double periods, and stated study periods.

The Divided-period Plan of Supervised Study. The divided period is closely associated with the Batavia plan. This plan was the result of the work of Superintendent of Schools John Kennedy, of the town of Batavia, New York. About the year 1898, in order to use some very large rooms in certain elementary-school buildings, he conceived the idea of having large classes and two teachers in each of the large classrooms. While one teacher conducted a recitation with one group, the other supervised the study of the rest. The results of the experiment were far beyond his expectations. Backward children made considerable progress, and failures were few.

The superintendent soon found out that the improvement was due not to having two teachers in the room, but to having class instruction supplemented by supervised study. The method was, therefore, applied in the other classrooms of the school and also extended to the secondary school. The teacher divided the class-period time between the usual class recitation and supervised study. From this beginning, many modifications of the plan have been devised. Various divisions of time have been made between the two methods. In some plans, half of the period is given to each procedure. In others, the class recitation is reduced to a minimum and most of the period is spent in supervised study. Some school systems allow the division of time to be made at the discretion of the teacher.

The Double-period Plan of Supervised Study. The double-period plan is very similar to the divided-period procedure, except that two whole periods are given over to the class, instead of one. During the first period, the class engages in the usual recitation work; in the second, it is supervised study. In some plans, this procedure is reversed, so that supervised study comes first. The value of having supervised study first has been argued pro and con, but no definite conclusions have been reached. If any home study is required, it would seem best that supervised study should be last, so that the pupil could continue to study before recitation. However, this depends largely on the aim of the recitation. Two objections have been raised against the double period. These are the lengthened school day and the increased cost of instruction that the plan necessarily entails.

As in the divided-period forms of supervised study, many of the double-period plans have been worked out in various ways. In the plans devised by Mabel E. Simpson, ninety minutes are devoted to each lesson.¹ This period of time is divided in various ways, to suit the particular lesson. In one of her lessons, the time schedule is as follows:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|------------|
| The review | 25 minutes |
| The assignment | 25 minutes |
| Physical exercises | 5 minutes |
| Study of the assignment | 35 minutes |

Supervised study may be employed in combination with other methods. In the chapter on the socialized recitation, reference is made to a combined plan of that form of procedure and supervised study. Under this arrangement, the class is in session for seventy minutes. One period of thirty minutes is given over to the socialized recitation; the other, of forty minutes, is devoted to supervised study. Combinations of methods and procedures can be worked out by the alert teacher to give excellent results.

Supervised Study Used Periodically. Many teachers and superintendents, although acknowledging the value of supervised study, are not favorably disposed toward dividing the period, as in the divided period, or toward accepting the long double period. They have devised various plans. In one of these, every other day is given to supervised study by the classes. In another plan, an extra period has been added to the school day for this method. A third plan sets aside one hour a week for supervised study in each subject.

The G.I. Plan. At the close of the Second World War, many veterans who had not completed their high-school courses were desirous of finishing that phase of their education. There were many reasons why these former soldiers wanted to continue their schooling. In the service, some

¹ *Supervised Study in American History* (New York, 1924).

of them saw the value of a high-school diploma. The G.I. Bill of Rights made it possible for many of them to devote their time to study. Some, because of their progress in the service, wanted to go to college. A number of these veterans lacking only a few units of work, reentered the high schools from which they had gone and completed the requirements. Many others, especially those who lacked many units, desired a speedier method to complete their work. As a result, in some of our large cities high-school courses for veterans were instituted that were on a supervised-study basis. The best teachers were employed and classes were small—twelve to fourteen pupils. The plan was to have the veterans use a guidance sheet and study under supervised procedures. They would study a text until they reached a difficulty or desired more understanding. Then they would confer with the instructor. They would proceed on this tutorial basis until they had mastered the text. A series of examinations would be given to insure that the pupil had passed the course. By such a procedure the pupil would complete the course with no waste of time.

Some have thought that schools could learn much from such experiments. However, it must be recognized that the students of such classes are more mature and experienced. They are also motivated by compelling aims that are not present in secondary-school pupils. While much commendation must be given for these programs that hasten the educational experience of veterans, it must be recognized that many educational aims of a broader nature than subject mastery are lost in the process.

Teaching Pupils How to Study

It is most important in any educational program that the pupil be taught how to study, and the supervised method affords an excellent opportunity for this. It is a sad fact that many pupils in high school do not know how to study, simply because they have never been taught. In the old, traditional type of lesson, the pupil was expected to study at home in order to recite in school. No thought was given to such questions as to whether or not he knew how to approach his studies or whether he did his work in the most economical way. Teachers have assumed too much on the part of their pupils and have been guilty of leading them to establish wrong study habits. For instance, the teacher assigns five or ten pages in a history textbook to his class and gives no effective directions on how to study those pages. He may emphasize the word "study" or tell the class to study hard. Yet what do such instructions mean to the pupil? Can he distinguish between ordinary reading and study? Many pupils cannot. Consequently when they come to class the next day and fail miserably, it is often not because of neglect in preparation, but owing to the lack of training in methods of study. It is interesting to find out what

pupils really understand by an assignment of ten pages; frequently it is more interesting to find out what the teacher means. Does he mean that the pupil must memorize all the dates in the assignment? Does he mean that all the events enumerated must be memorized? Does he mean that the pupil must see the relations and interrelations of the topics assigned and their relation with the main topic? Does the assignment include all this and more? In considering the results expected from an assignment, it will be found that much of the poor work in school is due to the indefiniteness of the teacher.

Quite often in teaching pupils how to study, even those in the advanced grades of the high school, the most elementary means must be employed. The writer recalls a visit to a class in history in grade eleven not long ago. Most of the pupils had not the least idea of how to go about studying. To them studying meant merely reading it over. The teacher of this class spent much time in the elementary practice of paragraph study. The pupils read a paragraph in class. Then the most important thought was picked out, and the relationship of the other sentences in the paragraph to this was discussed and stressed. Next, the relationship among the paragraphs and their relationship to the main topic were taken up. Finally, the pupils were taught to summarize the chapter. Much good resulted from this procedure, and the pupils soon realized that study was more than reading the assignment over. Study was conceived as bringing into play such mental activities as analysis, comparison, and evaluation. Reading became merely the beginning of a study process that involved many activities of the mind.

Pupils should be taught the different types of reading. Although some have divided reading into five or six types, two general divisions are of great importance to the teacher of the social studies. These are (1) rapid reading, or what has been termed *skimming*, to get the essentials, and (2) careful, critical reading, such as we do in studying, as mentioned in the preceding paragraph. It is true that many pupils are never shown the difference between the two types. Quite often we find individuals in college who do all their reading in a careful, analytical, critical way. When they reach a class that requires much collateral reading, they are lost. It is necessary for the teacher to see that his pupils master both types of reading. This cannot be done satisfactorily by merely giving a list of directions, but requires actual and persistent practice in the classroom. No definite rules can be laid down concerning the speed at which pupils should read, since wide variations are inevitable, but the teacher should have some idea of the rate of rapid reading of his individual pupils and also of the rate of their careful, critical reading. Improvement then should be sought in both of these types. Simple means have been devised to test

the rate and comprehension of reading. These are discussed in the chapter on measurement.

Some educators limit supervised study to training in the elements of the study process. They believe that if pupils are taught how to study at the beginning of a course, no further supervision of this type will be needed throughout the school term. It must be kept in mind, however, that to build up and develop habits and skills, especially study habits and skills, requires a long period of time. After teaching a pupil to study, there is the necessity for watching his methods of study day after day throughout the school term.

How much supervision of study is necessary through the various grades of the high school depends on many factors. It is certain that supervision should become less and less necessary as the pupil progresses through the school. The ultimate aim is to make the pupil self-reliant so that he will not require further supervision. This means that he will know how to study, how to read intelligently, how to use a textbook, how to use a reference book, how to do collateral reading, how to use source material, how to prepare a talk or to write a theme, how to investigate social material impartially and effectively, and how to organize material for rendering unbiased judgments about social affairs. We know, however, that with the mass influx of youth into our secondary schools, this aim is impossible of entire fulfillment for a number of pupils. Supervision of study, therefore, is important throughout all the years of the secondary school.

The Use of Study-guidance Sheets

Many teachers have seen the need for teaching pupils the facts relating to methods of study and have therefore devised guidance sheets for the benefit of these pupils. The items discussed on the study guides deal with the technique of study and with the physical conditions necessary for effective study. In connection with the study of the textbook, most guidance sheets emphasize the following important points:

1. Be sure that the assignment is definitely understood.
2. Review the main points of the previous lesson.
3. Read over the assignment rapidly, to get the main points.
4. Consult a dictionary for new words and pronunciations of new words.
5. Look up on a map the places mentioned in the assignment.
6. Read the assignment through carefully, for a thorough understanding.
7. Keep the main topic clearly in mind, and relate the substance of each paragraph and division to the main topic.
8. With the textbook closed, go over in your mind the main points of the lesson in some detail and order.

W. S. Monroe worked out a good guidance outline of nine rules for the individual pupil to follow in independent study. These rules are as follows:

1. Successful study is difficult in a room which is not warm, well lighted, well ventilated, and otherwise physically comfortable. Successful study is also difficult in a room where there are other persons, or where there are disturbing noises or objects. Thus, the first step to be taken is to provide a physical environment which will not interfere with effective study.

2. Make out a daily schedule in which you assign a regular time and place for the study of each subject.

3. Plan to study an assignment as soon as possible after it is made; then review the lesson briefly before going to class. Do not wait to study a lesson until just before class, because you will have difficulty later in remembering what you study.

4. Before you begin studying a lesson collect all of the texts, reference books, and other material which you will need, so that your work will not be interrupted.

5. Begin working as soon as you sit down, with the determination that you will keep your mind on your lesson, that you will study for all you are worth, and that you will complete your task as quickly as possible. Do not waste any time getting started.

6. Begin your studying by recalling the main points of the previous lesson, and then get clearly in mind the assignment which you are to study.

7. At the end of your study of a lesson, summarize briefly what you have learned. In this summary the most important points should be clearly stated. Usually this summary should be written.

8. Watch carefully for items which you are unable to understand and check them for the purpose of asking your teacher for an explanation. Plan to ask your teacher at least one good question on each lesson.

9. Keep studying until you are certain you have your lesson or know just what the difficulty is.²

This list, as well as other similar ones, contains valuable suggestions on the art of study. However, it is one thing to post or to distribute a list of suggestions; it is quite another thing to get pupils to follow them. Even though a pupil may thoroughly understand and know them, this does not necessarily insure that they will be followed. In all phases of life, we see a wide discrepancy between knowledge and action. Yet only when the rules are followed do they become of value. That they will be followed can be insured through the use of supervised study. The teacher must develop in his pupils the habits necessary for independent study, and this can be achieved best through the use of this method.

² W. S. Monroe, *Directing Learning in the High School* (New York, 1927), pp. 422-433.

The Assignment

One of the most important items in supervised study is the assignment. It has been previously stated that this phase must be definite. There must be no vague assignments. If the teacher is to be on the lookout for mistakes that his pupils make and for the difficulties that they meet, he must have definitely in mind what he expects them to accomplish. Much discussion has arisen over the assignment, especially the type that should aid the pupil in the mastery of the text and in his reading. Much has been said against studying the text with the aid of a select list of questions or other similar devices. The view has been advanced that such procedures do positive harm to the pupil, in that they hinder him in finding his way alone through the book. It has been claimed that he will always have to depend on these aids in reading a book; and that when they are not available, he will be lost. Such a position, however, is in accord only with an unintelligent use of the aids. They are not ends in themselves but should be taken away gradually, as the pupil is able to proceed alone.

The assignment can be made by the teacher or through the use of a study guide in the hands of each member of the class. In either case, the assignment must be carefully worked out in detail and must involve considerable planning and preparation of material by the teacher. The objectives of the lesson, the method of procedure for reading and studying the lesson, plans of problem solving, the evaluation of the new material, and the limits of the advance lesson must all find an important place in the assignment.

In making an assignment, the teacher is confronted with the question of individual differences. It has been stated earlier in the chapter that supervised study is an excellent method of solving this problem. To work out assignments that will provide for the varying abilities of the pupils requires, however, careful planning on the part of the teacher. In every class, some have more ability than others. The pupils also work at different rates of speed. Many plans have been promoted to meet this condition. In one plan, the teacher makes the assignment just long enough for the brightest pupils to get through at the close of the supervised period. The slower pupils then finish their work at home. One teacher who uses this plan takes great pride in it because, he points out, it spurs the pupils to greater activity in class and also rewards those who finish first. Such a procedure, however, is not educationally sound. It aims to produce a level of mediocrity. No good reason can be given why a bright pupil should have less study time than a dull one merely because the former has been endowed with greater ability. One of the faults of our educational system today is that our bright pupils are not challenged mentally. The aim of

education is not that all may reach a mediocre level but that each will develop his abilities to the greatest extent possible for him. America needs leaders, and these do not come through average educational attainments. A much better plan for the assignment, therefore, is that of basing it on three levels of achievement. According to this plan, the class is treated in terms of three groups—the inferior, the average, and the superior. The assignments then are made according to the minimum, the average, and the maximum requirements. The minimum assignment is the amount of work required of the inferior pupil. The average pupils complete this work and then go on with the average assignment. The bright pupils complete all of the work of the average pupils and then go on to the maximum assignment. The advantage of this system is that each pupil is kept busy to the best of his ability. Then again, when this procedure is properly planned, provision can be made not only for the amount of work but also for an upward progression in the kind and quality of work.

An excellent illustration of such an assignment as outlined in the preceding paragraph is found in Miss Simpson's *Supervised Study in American History*. It deals with an assignment in ancient history as a background for the study of American history for the seventh grade. The topic concerns other ancient civilizations besides Egypt. The assignment is as follows:

I. Minimum assignment.

1. Read very carefully all information found from pages 8 to 17 about the Chaldeans, the Phoenicians, the Hebrews and the Persians.
2. Locate the section of the ancient world occupied by each of these nations. (Map opposite page 4.)
3. After completing 1 and 2, close your books and write a brief statement about each to prove how they were leaders in the civilization of ancient times.

II. Average assignment.

4. Write on the blackboard the names of the people about whom we have studied, and in one sentence after each name tell what you think is the most important fact to remember about each.

III. Maximum assignment.

5. Read again the last paragraph on page 17, then write a paragraph of your own, telling why we begin the study of American history by studying briefly about the people of ancient times.

Some teachers do not like the plan of the assignment on three different levels but prefer to have a minimum assignment that all must complete and then to plan for extra work. An amount of work is prepared that no pupil can entirely finish. The value of this plan is found in the fact that pupils may choose what extra work they wish to do according to their

interests and abilities. It also provides for pupils' suggesting what they would like to do. Naturally, a great variety of work should be planned to meet their varying interests and abilities.

The Values in Supervised Study

In regard to the values of supervised study, there are various opinions and partly conflicting ideas. Almost all who have measured the results when this method has been used agree that it aids in preventing failures and also that it promotes the progress of the slow pupil. Many also claim that the additional work that can be given the bright pupil affords him a better chance to make the most of his abilities. It is over the bright pupil, however, that there have been conflicting reports. Upon the basis of results obtained, some teachers state that the bright pupil is retarded when this method is used. The retardation of the bright pupil when shown, however, may be due to a faulty technique in applying the method rather than to a failure of the method.

One of the chief values of supervised study is found in the opportunity that it presents in dealing with individual differences. The pupil works along his own mental level and at his own capacity. Assignments can be given to meet all levels of ability. The trouble with many of the old classroom procedures lay in their inability to meet these differing capacities and abilities. Most of the members of the class were forced to listen to what they already knew, in order that the errors of a few might be corrected.

Another good feature of supervised study is seen in the better pupil-teacher relationships that it promotes. The usual class teaching procedure often produces a "class *versus* teacher" attitude. The teacher is frequently considered a hard taskmaster and little more. Under a supervised-study program, he appears in the role of a helper and guide. There is much more opportunity for displaying sympathy and understanding. The teacher is able to understand the pupil and his difficulties and is in a position to spur him on to greater effort.

It is also evident that certain skills can best be developed under the procedure. Teachers often assume that pupils possess such skills, whereas a thorough use of a supervised method would reveal weaknesses in the learner. Certain skills must be mastered if pupils are to get an adequate understanding of their social-studies materials. An excellent account of skills in the social studies, with suggestions for improvement, is given in the handbook *Social Studies Skills* by F. E. Long and H. Halter (Inor Publishing Company, New York). Accompanying the book is an individual self-testing key. Many of the skills mentioned in the text could be developed through supervised study. Such skills as how to read social-studies

material; how to use encyclopedias, dictionaries, maps, atlases, indexes, and almanacs; and how to read graphs and maps can be developed in the pupil. Teachers should be aware that the mastery of skills is most important, for the skill that the pupil has learned will remain long after much of the material has been forgotten. In many schools the librarian is assigned all new pupils for six or more periods, so that each one will learn to use the library. Such procedures are to be commended.

The values mentioned presuppose a sane use of the method. An over-use of the procedure would result in a neglect of many aims of education. It does have its limitations. The socializing influences of the method are meager. Its proponents, therefore, advocate its use with other class procedures. It has often been combined with the socialized recitation. Many have had excellent results by combining the problem method, the socialized recitation, and the supervised study. For example, the pupils of the class are made to feel a challenging problem. They seek its solution under supervised study and then come together for a socialized discussion of their findings. It must always be borne in mind that methods are means and not ends. After all, the end in view is the training and education of the pupil.

The efficacy of any method of instruction depends largely on the teacher in charge. If he is not in sympathy with the plan, the chances of success will be small. It is one of the mistakes of education that administrators become enamored of a plan and then attempt to foist it on their school system. A superintendent became enthusiastic about supervised study and ordered that in all classes the first twenty minutes be given over to discussion or recitation and the final thirty minutes to supervised study. To insure obedience, a bell was sounded after the first twenty minutes, so that no teacher would have any excuse for violating the rule. Teaching is a very human affair and cannot be put in a mold to insure good results. Supervisors and administrators should bring the merits of the various methods to the attention of their teachers and encourage them to experiment, but the success of any plan will rest largely on the attitude of the teachers toward it.

Objections to Supervised Study

A few objections have been raised against the supervised-study procedure. It has already been mentioned that in some investigations it has been found that the bright pupil is not helped and, in some cases, is even hindered by the method. Consequently, some advocate the method only for the slow pupil. However, if results sometimes show that the bright pupil is hindered, the difficulty may be found, as already stated, in the way in which the method is applied. Many teachers are more interested

in preventing failures than in helping the bright ones of the class to develop their abilities. In the average school, a teacher is given more credit for keeping down the number of pupil failures than for the unusual attainments of the outstanding pupils in his class. However, with varying assignments to meet the different groups, there does not seem to be any reason why the brighter pupils should not profit under this procedure. Some have thought that the reason why the brighter pupils have not benefited to a greater extent is due to the fact that supervised study has discouraged homework. If this is the case, there is still the advantage that they are doing in school what they formerly did at home. Also, if homework is desired, it need not be discouraged. Home study can be made more pleasurable than schoolwork; for with all the difficult work completed in school, home study may be devoted to studies of a lighter nature, such as well-selected collateral reading.

A serious objection to supervised study, or at least to the plan that deals with the double period, has to do with the cost and the lengthened school day. If the length of the double period is ninety minutes, only four periods could be arranged in a school day of six hours. If another subject is added to the pupil's roster, such as physical education, a longer school day is necessary. The extracurricular activities, including assembly periods, which are very essential, especially in regard to socialization, would also lengthen the school day. Such a program might necessitate an increase in the teaching force that would mean an increased cost of education. The proponents of the method, however, maintain that the cost would not be greater in the long run or, at best, the increase would be negligible because, under the plan, failures would be largely eliminated. The great cost of retardation and elimination would be reduced.

The objection has also been raised that supervised study destroys the self-reliance of the pupil. Some teachers glory in the difficulties that confront the pupil and maintain that his aim should be to extricate himself from these, single-handed. It is true that pupils may use the teacher as a crutch and hinder their reliance upon themselves. It is also true that self-reliance is developed and comes not as a gift from the gods. It is accomplished by a carefully planned procedure, and not by throwing the pupil into an educational sea of difficulty where he is left to sink or swim. One does not learn to drive an automobile by getting into the car and experimenting with its machinery. One learns to drive by receiving explicit directions on how to drive and then being supervised as he puts his knowledge into practice. Naturally, it requires good teaching to be able to decide when and how much a pupil should be assisted. The teacher must ever realize that he is helping the pupil to help himself. To foster

this self-reliance in a pupil, the teacher must watch him at his work, note his weaknesses, and aid him in achieving the most economical and effective habits of study. The aim must be such that the pupil will need less and less supervision.

Summary

Supervised study is a method by which the teacher supervises a group of individual pupils at their work. The method recognizes individual differences and allows each pupil to proceed according to his ability. The teacher helps the pupil when he meets a difficulty or needs advice. The method curtails or simplifies homework, for the difficulties are mastered under teacher supervision in the classroom. Supervised study has sometimes been associated with plans to prevent failures. Many plans have been formulated in working out supervised study as a class procedure. In some of these, one-half of the class period has been given over to the supervised procedure. In others, a double period is provided in which a full period is given to one method and the second to the supervised form. Other allotments of time have also been proposed. The elements of supervised study can be introduced into the large study hall. The method is excellent in teaching pupils how to study. Failure is often due to the pupil's poor technique in reading and studying. Guidance sheets may be of help, but good results will be attained through encouraging and developing right study habits in the pupils. The assignment is an important phase of supervised study, for the pupil must know definitely what he has to do. Assignments must be made so that even the brightest is challenged and should be graded in difficulty and quantity to meet individual differences. The values of supervised study may be found in dealing with individual differences, in better pupil-teacher relations, and in the development of skills. The objection is raised that the procedure does not help the better pupils and that it hinders self-reliance. These objections, however, may be the result of a faulty use of the method.

Questions

1. Describe the duties of a teacher when supervising the study of a class.
2. Show how the elements of supervised study can be introduced into the study hall.
3. Indicate how supervised study recognizes individual differences.
4. What are the arguments for and against home study?
5. What factors must be kept in mind when homework is assigned?
6. Give the means that can be used to prevent individual failures.
7. Explain the various plans of supervised class study.
8. Indicate how supervised study can be used with other methods.
9. What objectives would we neglect if we conducted the schools under a program such as the schools for veterans mentioned in the chapter?

10. What factors must be kept in mind in teaching pupils how to study?
11. Of what use are study-guidance sheets?
12. Prepare an assignment for a modern problem you wish worked out under supervised study.
13. Prepare a differentiated assignment for a lesson in supervised study on any topic in the social studies.
14. What are the values of supervised study?
15. Name objections that have been raised against supervised study.

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CHAPTER VII

THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

The Trend toward Socialized Instruction

In recent years there has been an increasing demand for more socialized procedures in the classroom and for a curriculum that will lend itself more adequately to those plans of instruction. As a result, one of the methods that has received much attention in recent times is the socialized recitation. This method, as well as others, came into use when the evils in the old-time recitation became more and more manifest. Many claims have been made in regard to the values in this procedure, so that a careful consideration of its merits and also its disadvantages is warranted.

Many evils were connected with the old-time recitation, especially as conducted by the average teacher. Speaking in general terms, its chief evil resided in the emphasis that it placed on teacher activity, to the neglect of pupil activity. Such a procedure was not conducive to the learning process. The subject matter and not the pupil occupied the most prominent position in teaching. The drilling of facts into the minds of pupils was conceived to be the main function of the teacher. Naturally, under such a procedure, the pupil became listless and apathetic, with the result that often disciplinary measures were severe. To motivate study under such conditions was almost an impossibility. Worth-while attitudes were difficult to attain. Indeed, wrong attitudes were often inculcated. The pupil regarded the lesson as a tedious and tiresome task. All effort was directed to the end of answering questions that the teacher might ask.

Against this passivity in the classroom, the proponents of a change raised their voices. Emphasis, they stated, must be taken from the teacher and placed on the pupils. The learners must become the center of the educational process. The old system of testing must give way to the new system of learning. There are more important things to learn even than facts. Attitudes developed through study and classroom procedure are far more important than the acquisition of knowledge. Even facts may better be acquired under a system that places the responsibility on the pupils. Out of such reasoning as this arose the socialized recitation.

It is significant that the cry for the socialized recitation was made about

the same time as the demand for a more socialized curriculum. About thirty-five years ago, there appeared an increasing desire and a demand that the schools should do more in the matter of the socialization of the child. As a result, a decided revision of the curriculum has taken place. Old subjects have been revised in order to make them more functional. New subjects have been added to the program of studies in order to increase the opportunity for socialization. This has been decidedly true of the social studies. The content of history courses has received a new direction, especially in its social and economic aspects; and civics, economics, political science, and sociology have been given a more important place in the curriculum, emphasis being placed upon their functional values in the study of the problems of everyday living. The socialized recitation and the socialized curriculum must be considered separately, although the aim of both—the socializing ideal—is identical. The former is a method of instruction. The latter has to do with the technique of curriculum making, which, so far as the development of the course of study is concerned, is still in an experimental stage.

The Use of the Socialized Recitation

Many extravagant claims have been made for the socialized recitation. Its extreme proponents often set it over against a poor application of other methods, generally the old-time recitation and that at its worst. Quite often a stenographic report is given of the old method and of the new method in operation, much to the detriment of the former. The procedure of the first is as follows: The teacher begins by asking questions. He asks for facts and ideas on the lesson. There are no volunteer answers, nothing but blank faces. The teacher then tries by hints and suggestions to coax the unknown answer from his pupils. This provokes a series of guesses from the pupils, most of which are wrong. The lesson drags on like this during the whole period. The pupils are listless. Most of the questions cannot be answered, and the rest call out answers that are only partly right. How different is the report of the socialized recitation! One pupil gets up and not only discusses the main facts of the lesson but also exhibits understanding and interest. What he omits or does not know is contributed by the other eager members of the class. The careful student of the two procedures will wonder why the pupils knew the facts and did so well in the one case and not in the other. Was it due to the motivation of the assignment or to the form of recitation? Of course, it is possible to find two different classes that would approach the procedures outlined. On the other hand, it is possible to find an old-type recitation that is entirely different from that presented, producing results of the highest type, and a socialized recitation that is little better than use-

less. This is not an indictment against the socialized recitation. The method most assuredly has its values. The teacher needs to study its uses and to incorporate its values into his teaching.

As with all other methods, the teacher must not regard the socialized recitation as a solution to all classroom problems. It is a method that the teacher may use frequently to much advantage. The need for more socialized procedures in the average classroom is undoubtedly great. However, there are times to use this method and times not to use it. Teaching is not a mechanical process. The use of the socialized recitation will depend much on the class, on the teacher, and on the aim that the teacher has for the lesson.

Some teachers are well adapted to teach by this method. Others might create an atmosphere of artificiality by using it too liberally. Classes vary. Some have been trained to a socialized procedure, whereas others are lost if the method is introduced too rapidly. Then again, the mental ability and the social background of the individual pupils of different classes vary greatly. What one can do with one class cannot be done with another. It is in the failure to recognize this fact that so many beginning teachers err. In educational literature they read of plans of procedure and expect to put them into practice in their own classes, little realizing that perhaps the experiments described in the book or magazine have been conducted with model classes. That an experiment might prove successful under such conditions does not necessarily imply that it will also be successful in the average American high-school class, with pupils varying greatly in intelligence and also in cultural background. The same procedure cannot be used successfully in a class where the intelligence quotients of the pupils are low as has been used in a class where they are high.

Socialized Recitation and Class Organization

Socialized recitation may be better called socialized discussion. Since the former term, however, has an accepted meaning in educational terminology, we shall retain it. There is some difference of opinion concerning an exact definition of a socialized recitation. Some have held to a rather restricted definition; others have been more general in their view. According to the former, the procedure is one in which the teacher turns the period over to the class or to a committee chosen by the pupils and then withdraws entirely from any participation in the activities of the class. Of course, this does not imply that the teacher has not taken a hand in the preparation of the recitation before the meeting of the class. According to the second view, any class session that exhibits group consciousness and the feeling of individual responsibility toward the group

is a socialized recitation. In this form of procedure, the period is not one in which the teacher monopolizes the floor but one in which the feeling of cooperation among the group in accomplishing the work at hand is dominant. There is no need for the elimination of the teacher under such a procedure as this. The teacher may become an exceedingly active unit in the group, even serving as chairman during the class period. Under such a broad definition as this, the procedure known as the class discussion is classified within the socialized-recitation category.

In the class-discussion procedure, the teacher stands before his class and directs the discussion of the subject. Under a skillful teacher, it can be easily seen how in such a plan the activity is thrown on the students and the teacher may recede more and more into the background. In this sense, every lesson can be more or less socialized. Most of the proponents of the method, however, limit it to that type of lesson in which the conduct of the discussion is with the group, the teacher being either a silent witness or only a member of the class.

Care must be taken not to regard the socialized recitation as merely a form of class organization. Most of the evils that have arisen in connection with the method have been committed under this fallacy. Many to-day think that they are following a socialized-recitation procedure if they have organized the class, either formally or informally. The greatest of these evils centers in the appointment by the class or its president of a pupil who takes the place of the teacher. The pupil then occupies his position in the front of the room and becomes the autocrat of the classroom. He questions the class on the lesson and tries to act the part of the teacher in the old recitation-testing manner. Such a procedure as this possesses little value except for the pupil teacher. So far as the class is concerned, it merely means having an inferior teacher in the place of a trained one. Even though the class has been formally organized by electing officers, this does not insure the results that a socialized recitation should bring. The work may be so perfunctory as to be the very antithesis of a socialized recitation.

The form of organization of a class for a socialized recitation varies from a simple, informal organization to a complex, parliamentary one. In the former, the teacher may act as chairman or a pupil chairman may be chosen and the class can proceed during the period in a very informal manner. In the latter, the class so organizes itself as to carry on the work in regular order. A president, secretary, and other officers are elected, and each meeting of the class is carried out in accord with parliamentary procedure. Some proponents of the socialized recitation include another type, which they have termed the "institutionalized" form. Under this plan, the class acts out some adult institution. For instance, a class

in civics may turn itself into a city council, and the pupils act the part of councilmen. Or in history, the class may turn itself into a convention, and each member of the group represents a state. It is true that such a procedure can be highly socialized, but it is better to discuss it under its proper name of dramatics. There are many socialized activities in our high schools; and for the sake of clarity, it is wise to limit the socialized recitation to the definition advanced in this chapter.

Plans of Socialized Procedures

In planning to use the socialized recitation for the first time, the teacher must be on guard not to follow too closely the plans that have been evolved by others. Our educational literature contains many examples of successful experiments of the method. After reading the accounts, the teacher is tempted to try one of the experiments, and generally the attempt ends in failure. It must be remembered that no procedure can be used in exactly the same way by all teachers. Teachers as well as classes have different characteristics. The wide-awake individual, however, will evaluate these forms and use them in building up a technique of his own. The individual who has never undertaken any definite form of socialization of the lesson must necessarily proceed cautiously in the use of the new technique. The best way for the beginner is to start with the class-discussion procedure. The teacher in this method of instruction occupies an important place. There will be much discussion, some lecturing, and occasional questioning on the part of both pupil and teacher. From this procedure the teacher can gradually withdraw and place the activities more and more in the hands of the class. The pupils must understand that testing is not to be applied to the socialized lessons. When the stage is reached in which pupils question and answer other pupils and voluntary contributions are made, the class is ready for the introduction of the highest phases of the socialized method, including pupil organization, leadership, and responsibility for the lesson.

Among the general plans of socialized procedure that have been used with success in many schools is one that requires several leaders each day. The lesson or topic is divided into four or five parts, and a leader is chosen for each part. It is the duty of each leader to plan and prepare his work carefully. To do this, he will be required to make an outline of his phase of the topic and to work out a procedure that he will follow in conducting the work in the classroom. All his planning must be approved by the teacher. During the class period, each leader will assume responsibility for his phase of the topic. He will ask questions, call for discussions, and seek comments. He need not wait for volunteers; but if re-

sponses are slow, he can call upon anyone in the group. The members of the group are free to ask questions on any point that has not been made clear. After the class has completed the discussion, the leader offers any additional information that he thinks essential. If the work has been thoroughly done, the teacher will offer no remarks. If certain points have not been touched upon or if definite conclusions have not been reached, the teacher by a selected procedure—questioning, discussing, or commenting—will bring out those essentials.

There are many advantages and many dangers in this plan. It certainly provides opportunity for the development of leadership. Furthermore, it tends to train a well-prepared leadership; for with each leader in charge of merely a part of the lesson, it will insure better preparation. Naturally there will be a rotation of leaders. This again will promote the plan, for with training in leadership will come increase in ability to discuss. The greatest danger in the plan is that it may degenerate into a rapid-question, factual-answer type of procedure. This is not so much a criticism of the plan as of the teacher. To put such a plan of socialized procedure into operation demands careful preparation by the teacher. At first, especially, he has to work diligently with each group of leaders, showing them how to organize and proceed with their material. The success of the method depends also on careful class preparation. This calls for motivation, carefully planned. If properly conducted, a socialized procedure of the highest type will result.

A few teachers have experimented on a plan that goes beyond socializing the recitation to socializing every phase of the class procedure. Under such a system, the teacher is regarded as the best-informed member of the group, but everything that is done by the class must have the group sanction. At the beginning of the term the group decides after careful discussion what topics they wish to study. They then take the topic they want to study first and decide on the procedure they will follow. This may involve searching for materials, working out a bibliography, and assigning work. Naturally, the group will meet much of the time for discussion and further planning. This may involve many methods—reports, individual study, class trips, and discussion periods—until the topic has been studied to the satisfaction of the group. In such a procedure the teacher can suggest and help, but never force his will on the group. The plan has been criticized because so much time is lost in group discussion over what to do that not much is done in actual work. Those who advocate the plan insist that, even though not so much is learned as by other means, the pupils learn more worth-while lessons in planning for themselves. The plan has also been criticized on the grounds that pupils

do not have enough background to make the choices necessary in such a procedure. Naturally, the plan works best in a course on current problems.

Many plans for the use of the socialized recitation have been outlined for classes in current events. Probably better work is done in this subject with the method than by any other means. In one plan, the class has a president, a secretary, and four or five committees. Each committee is responsible for a certain phase of the work. Various ways in which to divide the work among the committees have been devised. In one plan, four committees are appointed: one for national affairs, one for foreign affairs, one for state affairs, and one for city affairs. Each committee is responsible for a knowledge of the important happenings in its respective field. Successful experiments have also been conducted in the plan that makes no provision for group work but in which the president calls upon certain individuals to prepare discussions on certain topics. Provision is also made for class criticism and discussion.

Various devices have been used by some teachers to maintain interest under the socialized-recitation procedure. In one plan, the class is divided into two groups for the purpose of checking on the number of recitations that each group makes and the number of questions that each group asks the other. Count is made of the items, and a healthy rivalry results. Many similar plans in which there are friendly rivalries and contests between the groups have been devised. Although such procedures have their values, they should not be overworked. A real use of the socialized recitation should carry within itself its own motivation. However, there is no objection to the sane rivalry of groups.

The Use of the Socialized Recitation with Other Methods

The socialized recitation is generally used with other methods and procedures. Naturally, in order to have any kind of discussion, pupils would have to be informed. Of course, pupils could study at home and return the next day prepared to enter into a discussion or to take some part in a socialized recitation. There are, however, class procedures that go well with this type of learning that should be outlined in some detail.

Supervised Study and the Socialized Recitation. The socialized recitation has been used successfully with a supervised-study procedure. Some of the plans already mentioned have indicated the feasibility of this. In a class period of sixty minutes, however, it would be better to use a simplified form of socialized recitation. The first part of the period can be devoted to the socialized recitation and the second to supervised study. For example, the procedure could be as follows. During the socialized recitation, the direction of the class is under a pupil chairman and a dis-

cussion leader. The chairman first calls upon a pupil, previously chosen by the chairman, teacher, or class, for review of the work of the preceding day. Corrections and additions are then voluntarily made. The chairman next calls for the topic or problem of the day, in order to be sure that the subject is clearly in the minds of the members of the group. The discussion leader now takes charge. Each phase of the topic or problem is then discussed by the group, under the direction of the leader. After the discussion, the teacher examines or comments on any points that have not been clearly brought out. This ends the socialized procedure, and the teacher makes the assignment for the investigation or supervised-study period. Under such a procedure as this, it is better to keep the same chairman for a week and to have a new discussion leader each day.

Oral Reports and the Socialized Recitation. Oral reports have been successfully used in connection with the socialized recitation. According to one plan, topics of importance and interest on the lesson are formulated by the pupils as the basis of reports to be delivered during the following day. These reports are discussed by the class. Under such a procedure, about half the time is devoted to the reports and a discussion of them, and the other half is devoted to a discussion on the topic of the day, under a discussion leader.

Another plan for using oral reports has sometimes been labeled the forum method. However, it seems better to restrict the forum idea to that given in the following paragraph. Under this procedure, reports on a particular topic or a phase of it are prepared by several pupils and presented to the class. After the reports are given, pupils may ask questions or voice opinions. Of course, in both plans of oral reports mentioned here, the teacher as a member of the group may add to the discussion or emphasize important points.

Forums and the Socialized Recitation. A new procedure seeking admittance into our secondary schools lends itself aptly to the socializing agencies. This is the forum. The procedure has its roots in the adult public forum which John W. Studebaker, former United States Commissioner of Education, did so much to promote. In the adult movement, many cities and school districts opened meeting places where the forums could be held. Important issues were then discussed under expert leadership. Secondary-school educators are beginning to see the possibilities of the plan in their schools, and experiments are being conducted. There are many ways in which the forum idea can be used. Usually, a chairman and a panel of from four to eight pupils take charge for the period. A general topic is then decided on by the group, and each member of the panel prepares himself on a particular phase of the problem. In the class period, half of the panel will sit at one side of the chairman and half at

the other side. The chairman will introduce the topic and call on them for their contributions. After a full discussion by the panel members, pupils of the class participate, either by asking questions of the panel members or by voicing their opinions. Another means of using this procedure is to have the chairman prepare a series of questions covering the topic and then ask the panel members the questions. Class discussion also is an important part of this procedure. The forum is well adapted to controversial issues.

Great advantages are claimed through the use of the forum. It can easily be seen that the benefits claimed for the socialized recitation may be inherent in the procedure. Those who advocate it in considering controversial issues laud its use because the main purpose is not to reach a group decision but to give all sides of a question, in a spirit of tolerance. Unlike the debate, there is no attempt to win a personal victory, but only to bring as much knowledge as possible to bear on the issue. Of course, much of its benefit depends on how it is conducted.

Debates and the Socialized Recitation. Although debates are not generally classified among socialized-recitation procedures, they are quite in harmony with the objectives of the plan. Preferably, debate should grow out of class discussion. For example, in a course in problems of democracy, the discussion might turn to the topic of social security. Out of this, the controversial issue of socialized medicine might arise. Here is a natural setting for a debate. Three pupils might be chosen to argue for it, and three against it. The usual rules for debate can be followed. However, as the class has received a background in the subject, much discussion can follow the debate, with the disputants answering questions and defending their positions. Our current problems are full of issues for debate.

Teacher Planning in the Socialized Recitation

The part that a teacher plays in the planning of the socialized recitation is most important. If one entered a classroom in which the method was being used, he would probably think that the teacher was having an easy time of it. In its final form, the work should be almost wholly carried on by the pupils. Even when this stage is reached, the work of the teacher is not lightened by any means. The use of the method requires greater leadership and better planning than most forms of teaching. The burden of responsibility for the success of the procedure rests upon the teacher. He must make better preparation and must plan more carefully to insure that the lesson will be of permanent value to the class. The aims for each lesson must constantly be before him, lest the recitation degenerate into just talk. To know when and how to stop or prevent

wrangling or useless debate requires intuition and tact. To allow for a certain limited amount of circuitous talk, in order that the interests of the pupils will not be stifled, requires patience and wisdom.

This method of procedure demands well-trained teachers. Under some of the old ways of teaching, it is possible to present a subject without having more than a very limited knowledge of it. This is especially true in teaching the social studies. One might attempt to teach American history by simply asking questions on the material found in the textbook. This cannot be done with the socialized recitation. Each pupil has a point of view. Each has his ideas on the subject and his questions to ask. The teacher, therefore, must have a broad background in the subject. He must possess a knowledge of much material and many sources; otherwise his defects will be painfully evident to the class. In the assignment, the teacher must know where each pupil can find his material without loss of time.

A good seating arrangement is helpful in a socialized recitation. Many plans have been worked out in this regard. In one of them, two rows of pupils have their backs to the teacher's desk and face two other rows. Such an arrangement as this is to be commended, for the tendency to recite to the teacher is obliterated. Seating the pupils in a double semi-circle is also a good plan. In many schools, however, the facilities do not permit this; for ten or twelve rows of desks face the teacher, and they cannot be moved. This is a disadvantage but does not make impossible a highly socialized form of procedure. It merely means that the teacher must work a little harder to bring about that group consciousness which is necessary for the recitation.

Advantages of the Socialized Recitation

Many advantages have been claimed for this method by its proponents, and certainly it does have its good points. Naturally, when we discuss its advantages, we assume that the work has been really socialized. Much poor teaching has been done under the name of this method, in which the classwork was not socialized at all. In a properly socialized recitation, however, there are many advantages. During a consideration of these, it is well worth keeping in mind that the aims of education have been gradually undergoing a change, so that today we are beginning to stress attitudes and ideals even more than knowledge. This is especially true of the social studies, where the importance of the development of right attitudes is being recognized. In all the social studies, the demand at present is for subject matter that will aid in the socialization of the child. The socialized recitation aids in accomplishing this ideal. The pupil regards himself as a member of a group and has a social motive in doing

his work. Under the stimulus of group consciousness, he develops the spirit of cooperativeness, with its by-products of courtesy and good will.

Training in Leadership. The method also gives training in leadership and initiative. In many classroom procedures, the development of these traits is almost entirely neglected. The pupil remains passive, with no opportunity to develop the latent powers within him. In the socialized recitation, there is ample opportunity for pupil leadership and pupil planning. Each one has a chance to express what he feels and thinks.

The Development of the Spirit of Cooperation. Ample opportunity is given to develop the much-needed spirit of cooperation through the use of the socialized recitation. This is very timely in the generation in which we are living. The old ideal of rugged individualism is beginning to break down before the new ideal of cooperation and social consciousness. Many of the evils of the past generation have been due to the spirit, "Each man for himself and the devil take the hindmost," and this still exists. Anything that the school can do to break down such a spirit is worthy of consideration. The need of feeling one's dependence on others and the willingness to sacrifice self for the group are much needed in our present complex society. If the socialized recitation can in any way contribute to this ideal, its place in our educational program is evident.

Teaching Pupils to Think Clearly. Then again, there is the aim of individual initiative in thinking. Under many of our old forms of procedure, the pupil is not expected to think at all. All he must do is to give back what is in the textbook. On the other hand, the socialized recitation offers the opportunity to discuss, to criticize, and to evaluate the public questions that are ever before us. Clear thinking is our great need today, to prevent the populace from being swayed by every wind of doctrine. What are our schools contributing to this?

The Opportunity for Self-expression. One of the greatest values in the method lies in the opportunity that it gives the pupil to express his thoughts. This is of great educational value, not alone because it develops in one the power to talk and express himself, but also because of its importance in the learning process. Learning is indeed slow if the pupil remains passive; but if he is given opportunity to express himself, his thinking will become clarified and a better understanding will be reached.

The Problem of Motivation. The socialized recitation helps to solve the problem of motivation. The pupil is not reciting to a teacher but is engaged in a cooperative task with the rest of the group. Interest is aroused, and each feels his responsibility. There is the wish to do one's best, as well as the desire to stand well with the group. Every effort, then, is put forth to accomplish the work at hand. Care must be taken, however, in the development of social relationships that none of the individuals will

strive to advance his own prestige at the expense of the group. It is the duty of the teacher to set up and develop the higher level of ideals of service and sacrifice to the social group.

Criticisms of the Socialized Recitation

Despite the values that can be found in the method, it has its critics. Most of the criticism, however, has been aimed at the abuse of the method rather than at its use. The method, indeed, has its limitations and its dangers. It will be worth while to discuss some of these. One great danger in the use of the method resides in the likelihood that the lesson will be socialized in name only. In other words, we shall have the form, but not the substance. Reference has already been made to the evils that may result from simply substituting a pupil for the teacher. Yet many think that they have a socialized recitation when a pupil teacher stands at the front of the class. Then, there is the danger that the work may become perfunctory. The procedure may become mechanical, and the pupils respond not through any social urge but through habit or desire to please the teacher. Under such procedure, the method has less value than the old-type recitation. When and how to use the method are of utmost importance to the teacher. Although some teachers maintain that every lesson should be a socialized recitation, it is true that such a plan would be in danger of degenerating into one of the worst forms of class procedures.

Inadequate Mastery of Subject Matter. One of the decided disadvantages in an exclusive use of the method resides in the fact that it is not conducive to an adequate mastery of the subject matter. Viewed solely from the point of view of the efficient learning of subject matter, the use of this method can receive little justification, for many other procedures are much more efficient in this respect. The socialized recitation is wasteful of time. If there is the urgent need for economy of time during the class period, other methods should be used. The importance of this method lies in the social values involved.

Tendency toward Desultory Discussion. One great problem in the use of the socialized recitation is the tendency of the class to wander from the subject. Careful guidance is required on the part of the teacher. Severe repression on his part, however, will harm the spontaneity of the discussion and the desire of the pupils to participate. Careful training of the pupil leaders will help to avoid this. The teacher may also find tactful interference necessary. This is a real reason why the teacher cannot be merely a passive spectator of the lesson. He must at times in a clever way lead the class to the point at issue.

Problem of Futile Discussion. The recitation also is in danger of de-

generating into futile discussion. There are pupils who will argue for argument's sake. Some will argue simply to prove their point, whether it has a direct bearing on the lesson or not. The teacher must be alert to prevent useless debate. Then again, pupils left to themselves may waste much time in discussing minor points. The overcoming of these dangers requires the use of the highest skills in the art of teaching.

Danger of Domination by a Few Assertive Pupils. In a socialized recitation, there is always the danger that a few pupils will dominate the lesson. Such a situation, it is true, exists among all groups. In any crowd we see a few taking the lead and doing all the talking. Without careful planning, this would be the case in the socialized recitation. Such domination by a few pupils is not conducive, however, to the full values that should result from the use of this method. The teacher is interested in the socialization of all the pupils, not merely that of a few. He must plan the recitation period so that the lesson is not monopolized by the few. This does not mean that backward pupils will be made over in a lesson or two. Much planning and tact will have to be devoted to such pupils. In some of the illustrations of the method previously quoted, various means are suggested whereby all are led to participate. Individual pupils are called upon to respond before there is any call for volunteering. They are given topics to discuss in class the statement of which they must defend. It may be added that any teacher who has trained a reticent and silent pupil to the point where he can get up to discuss and defend his arguments has accomplished a great service to that pupil. Such a task calls for real skill in teaching. This is especially true because pupils are different. All degrees of mentality are present in the classroom. The slow pupil feels at a disadvantage among the superior mentalities. He feels that his contribution might be ridiculed. More and more the desire to recede into the background becomes evident. How to make such pupils feel that their contributions are worth while and how to make the bright pupils appreciate such contributions require ingenuity, tact, and patience.

Danger in Exclusive Use of the Socialized Recitation. The extreme proponents of the socialized recitation recommend its exclusive use. This is true of almost all methods and their proponents. It has been stated that the procedure cannot be exclusively used in the social studies, especially not in history. It is a method that should be used at times. So far as socialization in itself is concerned, however, every lesson should be more or less socialized in the sense that pupils are given a chance to participate, and especially not in a stereotyped manner. The socialized recitation can well be employed for review work or for attacking and solving problems. It is significant that many plans for the socialized recitation base the work on a series of problems or on a series of topics. The

problem may be used to advantage with this method. In the plan given earlier in this chapter, the method is associated with supervised study. This combination has been used successfully in many classrooms. The teacher must bear in mind that the accepted teaching aims of any subject cannot be accomplished by any exclusive use of the socialized recitation.

✓ The Socialized Recitation and the Pupil of Low Ability

In the discussion of the socialized recitation, many desirable outcomes have been pointed out. It is true that socialized class procedures will help to break down the bars of artificiality in the classroom. It will promote better pupil-teacher relationships and conform to the latest ideas in regard to the nature of learning. However, some of the aims in this procedure will bear closer scrutiny. One of these concerns the training in leadership. For example, in many of the plans outlined, provision is made for all to assume leadership. Officers must be constantly changed, so that all members of the class will have opportunity to serve. New discussion leaders must constantly be chosen. Panel members must be different each time. One wonders if we are planning too much and missing the mark. English educators who have visited our schools express astonishment that, in our system of mass education, we neglect our superior pupils.

Many of the plans outlined in our educational magazines come from select classes of high intelligence, quite often from private schools. All their members can assume leadership. In the average class in public schools there are all levels of ability. Many pupils will never attain any high degree of leadership. This does not mean that they should not be trained to the best of their abilities. However, some emphasis should be placed on what constitutes good leadership. In the larger world that they are about to enter, not all can be leaders; but if democracy is to improve, all should know something about the selection of leaders and policy. The teacher, then, must plan for the contribution of all pupils, including those of low ability. In this he has a double task. In the first place, he must develop patience and understanding in the brighter pupils toward those of lesser ability. Then again, he needs to encourage the latter to express themselves and to have confidence in their viewpoints. This is much easier in the nonhistorical social studies than in history. In these there are many problems or topics with which he is familiar and in which he can make worth-while decisions.

Some have thought that homogeneous grouping would aid in the socialization process, as the pupils in the class would feel freer in expressing themselves among those of like ability. This, however, does not seem

to be the solution of the problem, despite the advantages inherent in such grouping. Society is made up of heterogeneous groups and, if our social studies classrooms can reflect this and still develop those desirable traits of the socialized recitation, the school has moved forward in attaining a goal in education. However, it is well to keep in mind when planning socialized procedures that not all in the classroom will be leaders and that not all should be trained with that in view.

The Importance of Socialization

It is important to note again the obligation of the teacher in the socialization of the child. We do not wish to go to the other extreme and say that facts are not important. The teaching of history and other social studies, however, will be poor if the pupil is taught facts and little else. Facts are significant when they aid the understanding. They are necessary for developing the ability to reason and for forming impartial judgments. However, the matter does not end with that. There are by-products of great worth. Attitudes, ideals, and standards are of the utmost importance. The socialized recitation has its values in such training and can be used with great profit. All recitations should be socialized in the sense that the work is carried on in an atmosphere of freedom which encourages pupils to look upon their teachers as guides rather than as autocratic rulers.

In the evaluation of the socializing function of a particular method, it is well to remember that one classroom alone is not the sole agency for the purpose. Many teachers neglect to take into account what is done in other classrooms and in the school as a whole. It is true that the social studies, especially the nonhistorical ones, offer better opportunities for socialization than do other subjects. However, the school of today is far different from that of yesterday. The wide offering of club activity in the modern school presents a wonderful opportunity for the socialization of the child. The dramatic program may instill a cooperative spirit and develop a sense of responsibility. The inherent advantages in the weekly assemblies, when they are pupil-planned and pupil-operated, are obvious. Student government, the program of athletics, and other extracurricular activities must be recognized as of great value in this phase of education. This does not minimize the importance of socializing procedures in the classroom. They are necessary in the attainment of the objectives of education. It does, however, draw attention to the fact that the teacher must keep in mind the entire school program when he is doing his own planning.

Summary

In recent years there has been a trend toward emphasizing socialized procedures in the classroom. Many extravagant claims have been made for the socialized recitation. It has its uses, but it is not the solution for all classroom problems. The procedure varies, from the plan in which the teacher takes no part in the class period to the one in which he conducts a class discussion. In any form of this recitation, group consciousness is essential. The organization of the class may be quite simple or it may be on a complex, parliamentary basis. Many plans have been evolved in using the method. An extreme form is the one in which all the planning and all the work are done by the pupils. Current events as a subject is very adaptable to the procedure, and many plans have successfully been formulated. The socialized recitation has been combined with supervised study. The method also offers opportunity for the presentation of oral reports. Debates and forums may be used to advantage with socialized procedures. In all plans of the socialized recitation, the place of the teacher is most important. He must carefully plan for its success and exercise watchful oversight. A good seating arrangement is of great help in conducting the recitation. There are many values in the method, especially in the development of desirable traits. The procedure should not be followed exclusively, for some objectives of education are better attained by other means. The work should not become perfunctory or degenerate into futile discussion. Care must be exercised in socialized procedures when one is dealing with pupils of low ability, for socialization is training not only for leadership but also for intelligent "followership." The teacher should also recognize that many organizations in the school help in the socialization of the child.

Questions

1. What evils are inherent in the old-time recitation?
2. Name the different procedures that have been included under the term "socialized recitation."
3. What is the danger in the pupil-teacher organization of the socialized recitation?
4. Describe a successful plan of socialized recitation.
5. What are the good and the bad points of the extreme type of socialized procedure in which all the activity is under group domination?
6. What other methods can be used with the socialized recitation?
7. Prepare a plan of procedure for a forum on a recent controversial issue.
8. Why does the socialized recitation require a better trained teacher than the old-type recitation?
9. Indicate the importance of a good seating arrangement in the socialized recitation.
10. What are the advantages of the socialized recitation?
11. Mention some of the criticisms of the method.

12. What dangers are to be avoided when using the method with pupils of low ability?
13. Show the contributions of the different aspects of school life to socialization.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE LABORATORY AND THE LABORATORY METHOD

The Background of the Social-studies Laboratory

Modern teaching in the social studies has come a long way from the time when a textbook was the only equipment considered necessary. The teacher of today is becoming more and more concerned with the facilities that are required for doing good work. A careful evaluation of the aims and values of the social studies clearly indicates that much equipment is needed in addition to textbooks and a few maps. Many aids have become available to the teacher in recent years. Even if no one had ever thought of a social-studies laboratory, the modern classroom would have presented quite a different appearance from the classroom at the beginning of the century. Different types of textbooks, pamphlets, and collateral reading; various kinds of maps, globes, and charts; projectors and their supplies; and bulletin boards with their display are no longer unusual in the classroom.

With the increasing number of aids, the idea developed of a social-studies laboratory. It was unfortunate that the term "laboratory" was used in connection with the social studies, for it suggested a link with the natural sciences. The term has generally been associated with experiment and scientific observation which is foreign to the teaching of the social studies, at least in the manner emphasized in the natural sciences. The connection also was unfortunate because some suggested a "scientific laboratory method," which they expected would revolutionize the teaching of the social studies and overcome the difficulties of the old-fashioned methods. Naturally, the sponsors of such a procedure were vague in their ideas, except that laboratory space and much equipment would be required.

The idea of a social-studies laboratory has given rise to farfetched demands on the part of many teachers of these subjects. Often there have been requests for such a laboratory on no better grounds than that the social-studies department is entitled to one if the natural-science department has one. This is obviously the poorest kind of reasoning. All aids to education must show their value in the process of education before they can be regarded as worthy of consideration. Much evil, without count-

ing the expense, has been done in the name of education under the guise of an imposing-looking word. Facilities and equipment, to be sure, are necessary in the teaching of the social studies, but these things must be judged on their own merits and not on their values in other subjects.

Progressive teachers agree that more and better equipment is essential in teaching the social studies, but opinion differs regarding the need of a special laboratory for it. Some discount entirely the idea of a laboratory for teaching these subjects. Even among those who advocate such a plan, there are different ideas in regard to its equipment and use. This haziness makes it of the utmost importance to display caution as one studies the subject. In regard to equipment, we need to ask the question, "What educational values does the equipment promote?"

The literature on the subject shows much variation in regard to the equipment that the laboratory should contain. In some of the examples of laboratories described by different writers, the tools advocated are almost entirely books. In other descriptions, books play only a part and sometimes a minor part. Often, we are presented with the incongruous description of a laboratory stocked with every conceivable item and yet a method used that calls for little more than books. Some of the plans emphasize the making of maps, charts, graphs, diagrams, and models; others reduce these to a minimum and emphasize the working out of problems and topics that require the use of books and references. In selecting equipment for the laboratory, its value in teaching must be the first consideration.

The Social-studies Library

Before taking up in detail the general equipment of a laboratory, a word must be said about the library facilities essential in teaching the social studies. Regardless of what other equipment is available, books are absolutely necessary. Few schools have an adequate number of the right types of books for teaching the social studies. During the past years, we have spent large sums of money on imposing-looking buildings but have regarded the purchase of books other than textbooks as a waste of money. Schools have expended much money on the finest equipment for chemistry and physics laboratories, yet they often provide for their pupils little more than a perfunctory acquaintance with books in all subjects. During the economic depression, library appropriations were among the first to be cut down. Books are as important to the social-studies laboratory as test tubes and retorts are to the chemistry laboratory. The basic material that pupils require for an understanding of the social studies comes from books. Other facilities and equipment are aids toward promoting this understanding.

Naturally, in the average school it would be impossible to have a separate library for each department. In the main library, however, there should be separate shelves for each subject in the social-studies curriculum. The teacher should consult with the librarian as to which books and materials should be placed on the shelves. Many teachers do not utilize the services of the librarian in this respect. Yet often she is the very one who can give valuable aid in this phase of the work. If pupils have their assignments, they can then utilize the library in a more efficient way, for they will have the librarian to aid them. This is especially true if they have study hall or unassigned periods when they may use the library as a workshop. The value of such an arrangement is evident, for the use and value of reading materials increases with their accessibility. If there is much labor or difficulty in obtaining books, pupils are prone to ignore them unless there is some outward compulsion. If pupils see the need of consulting references or looking up important topics, they probably will do the work if the means are at hand.

If the school has a social-studies laboratory, it should include the reading material necessary for the subject. Shelves should be constructed and all the books necessary for the work should be placed upon them. This need not include material of a lighter nature or books that may be read by a few pupils. These may still be placed in the main library. However, if there are books that the teacher desires many pupils to read, he should keep them in the room. Those who have taught realize that when books are easily accessible, pupils are more apt to read them than when they have to go to the library to find them. This is also true for the classroom where there is no laboratory procedure. The teacher should keep materials available. The number and type of books necessary for a classroom library will depend to a great extent upon the teacher and upon the subject. Several different textbooks on the subject, certain selected reference books, printed source material, as well as current newspapers and periodicals carefully chosen, may be essential. Each classroom, of course, should have open shelves for these materials.

The Social-studies Laboratory Equipment

The capable administrator tries to get for his teachers as much equipment as they need in order that they have every opportunity of doing good work. Teachers should realize, however, that excellent work can be done with meager equipment. Many teachers have had good results with the use of one or possibly two textbooks and a few reference books. On the other hand, poor teaching has been done with the best equipment. A perfectly equipped laboratory does not insure good results. This does not imply that the teacher should not become aware of the latest aids

to teaching and suggest to administrators the need of well-equipped laboratories or classrooms. What it does imply is that efficient teaching is more important than the abundance of material.

A good teacher uses to the best advantage the equipment that he has. For example, many teachers who bewail the lack of maps in their classrooms and find it impossible to secure them should consider that effective work can be accomplished by drawing maps on the blackboard. It is often the case that pupils in the class have the ability and are glad to have the opportunity to do such work. Incidentally, the activity may create in them a deep interest in the subject. The use of the blackboard for map work is discussed in another chapter.

A discussion of the equipment necessary in a social-studies laboratory presents many problems. With regard to the natural sciences there is more or less agreement as to what should comprise the laboratory. Concerning the social studies there is no such agreement. A wide difference of opinion prevails over what may be regarded as essential equipment. From a study of the literature on the subject, varying emphasis is placed on floor space (generally about one and one-half times as much per pupil as in the ordinary classroom); seating arrangement in which tables and chairs, instead of desks and benches, are advocated; bulletin board; blackboards; filing cabinets; bookcases filled with different kinds of textbooks, reference books, and encyclopedias; dictionaries; atlases; maps; pictures; and charts and graphs, as well as the usual work materials, including ink, pens, and pencils. One writer makes the following recommendation for the social-studies classroom or laboratory:

1. A room larger than the conventional classroom and equipped with tables—two pupils to each—and chairs.
2. A bulletin board extending the full length of the rear of the room.
3. A blackboard across the front and possibly along one side of the room.
4. Shelving below the blackboard in the front part of the room, with sufficient cupboard space and a glass display case for objects of value.
5. A filing cabinet.
6. Equipment for projectors for the use of slides and motion pictures.
7. Suitable maps.¹

The most exhaustive study concerning equipment for the social-studies laboratory is that made by Dr. J. W. Baldwin.² His report is based on a

¹ J. B. Wiechman, "A Survey of Equipment and Materials Used in Social Studies Departments of the Los Angeles Junior High Schools" (University of Southern California, 1930), unpublished Master's Thesis; abstract in *Historical Outlook*, 22 (April, 1931), p. 174.

² *The Social Studies Laboratory*, Contributions to Education, No. 371, Teachers College, Columbia University (New York, 1929).

careful investigation of the equipment necessary for teaching effectively the social studies in grades four to twelve. He secured the material for his study from social-studies teachers or from those connected with the social-studies departments of various schools, from analyses of courses of study and books on method in the field, and from the inspection of equipment used in the teaching of the social studies in many high schools. One of the most significant conclusions in his report is the emphasis placed on the seating arrangement of the laboratory—tables and chairs or the single-unit desk and chair being advocated. This item of seating arrangement ranks first in importance in his study for all the subjects of the social studies. The next item of importance, taking the social studies as a whole, is the bulletin board. The third item in order of importance is the blackboard, although the demand, according to the study, is not for an excessively large amount of blackboard space. There is much variation of opinion concerning all other items of equipment necessary for a laboratory. A table dictionary and a large atlas rank high for geography but low for civics in the junior high schools; in the senior high schools, a high rating is given them for all subjects. An almanac is considered important in all subjects. Naturally, books and bookcases are emphasized, and supplementary textbooks are given a prominent position. Much difference of opinion, however, is shown as to the types of books and kinds of maps necessary in the social-studies laboratory.

Since the publication of these reports, new equipment has been put on the market that could find its place in the laboratory. There has also been a wider use of equipment already in the market. Some have suggested that, inasmuch as the social studies make most use of the motion-picture machine, it be permanently placed in the laboratory and that other groups borrow it when they have need. However, if there is a projection room in the school, the machine would not belong in the laboratory unless the school possesses more than one of them. More filmstrips are becoming available for the social studies. If a machine is obtained for the laboratory, it will be good policy to start a filmstrip library. These films are inexpensive, and if some are bought each year a fine collection will soon be accumulated. Improvements have been made in the opaque projector, so that all types and sizes of copy can be shown without need of mounting or placing in holders. Maps and globes have also been improved. Charts are becoming better adapted for teaching purposes, especially for use in civics and problems of democracy. Such charts as the organization of the federal government and how a bill passes through Congress are of great help in teaching such subjects. Some educators have suggested that the laboratory should contain a phonograph, radio, and television set. However, the inclusion of these will depend on their

use. Certainly they should not be included if they are to be used only occasionally. In buying expensive items the educational advantages must be judged in light of the expense involved. Some schools which possess tape recorders make recordings of important speeches such as the President's speech on the state of the union. Classes may then hear them at their regular periods, and the school program is not interrupted.

The Cost of Equipment for the Social-studies Laboratory

The chief factor that has prevented the introduction of the social-studies laboratory is the cost involved. At the present time there is a growing tendency on the part of school boards to spend more money on equipment. However, the administrative difficulties involved and the other needs of the school often make it impossible to provide laboratories for the social studies. The seating arrangement generally advocated is often beyond the school budget. With the increased secondary-school enrollment of the present, and with classes ranging from thirty to forty or more, the desk arrangement is economically necessary. With the shortage of school buildings and the high cost of building, it seems improbable that many schools will be built that contain social-studies laboratories. However, even if more money becomes available for school purposes, much of it should be used to increase the salaries of teachers, so that the standards of teaching may be raised.

Even though the social-studies laboratory may not be available for the average school, the teacher should suggest and urge the purchase of equipment from year to year so that the classroom will approach the laboratory. More bulletin-board space, books, maps, and filing cabinets may be available. An increasing number of schools have motion-picture, filmstrip, and slide machines. Indeed, these are becoming essential in teaching. The small school system should not purchase motion-picture films, as in the long run, it will be more economical to rent them, for in addition to free films, many may be rented at a nominal charge. If a two-reel rented film is shown to four or five classes, the per capita cost is very small. Of course, in a large school system it probably would pay to start a film library. In all schools, teachers should urge that the rental or purchase of films be made an item in the school budget. In the small school, it would not be too much to ask that two to three hundred dollars be set aside annually for this important educational aid. Forward-looking schools should consider a projection room, and in proposed new school buildings this should be a serious consideration. If the school does not have a projection room or a laboratory, a few classrooms should be fitted with the proper shades and facilities. Filmstrip is relatively cheap, and if a machine is available the school should start a filmstrip library.

Teachers should be more emphatic in insisting on these and other aids. In the past, teachers have been too reticent in asking for equipment and school boards have been content to allot very little money for them.

The Commission on the Social Studies reported on the importance of proper equipment in teaching in the following succinct manner: "Both the content and the organization of the social science program are strongly conditioned by the various material aids employed in teaching. Effective instruction consequently requires a far more generous and discriminating provision of these aids, particularly in rural communities, than most American schools now enjoy."³ Material aids of instruction are essential if the aims and objectives of our educational program are to be achieved. The subject is one that deserves more careful attention than has been given it in the past.

The Laboratory Method

The form of the laboratory method varies in different schools. The one usually employed is a combination of the elements of other modern methods. The task of the teacher generally in this procedure is the supervision of the work of the class. The pupils have definite tasks to perform, and the teacher works among them, correcting errors, making suggestions, and giving encouragement. The work of the class may be stopped from time to time, so that the teacher may explain a vague point or emphasize an important phase of the work. H. C. Hill presents a picture of the method as used in the University of Chicago High School in a class in civics:

The greater part of the students will be studying and writing at their work tables. Two or three may be having a quiet conference on some moot point. Others may be comparing notes or outlines of some phase of the work. One student may be busy at the dictionary, hunting for the explanation of some phrase or term; another may be consulting an atlas; a third may be sharpening a pencil or filling his fountain pen; a fourth may be making a map or preparing a graph; a fifth may be conferring with the teacher about some difficulty or asking for a criticism on his notes or outlines. Usually one or two students will be browsing among the volumes in the bookcases or going through tables of contents or indexes to find a clue to some obscure item. Now and then an idler or a dawdler will be observed. In general, however, the room is a place of quiet, disorderly order, in which students are busily engaged in profitable activities of one kind or another.⁴

A different type of laboratory procedure is one in which classroom work and laboratory tasks are so arranged that the activity during the laboratory

³ American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations*, p. 62.

⁴ "Laboratory Work in Civics," *Historical Outlook*, 16 (March, 1925), p. 111.

period requires but little actual supervision. The group in the laboratory consists of two or more classes taking the same course. One teacher has charge of this period. The pupils here are engaged principally in securing materials for themes and reports and in the writing of them. The pupils work from mimeographed sheets or follow the instructions given them earlier in their classrooms. They secure the books and other materials necessary for their work at the beginning of the laboratory period. The teacher may be called upon, of course, for aid and advice, but the work is not carried out in the manner of supervised study. The completed themes and reports may be handed in to the teacher in charge of the laboratory period. Work in the classroom, which includes the use of various methods, supplements the work of the laboratory.

A much discussed question concerns the amount of time that should be given to laboratory work in teaching the social studies. The length of the laboratory period is usually sixty minutes. The number of periods a week, however, varies from one to five. Some advocate doing all the work of the social studies in the laboratory. They maintain that much better work can be done in this way; for if the need for some other procedures arises—a lecture or a discussion or even a socialized recitation—these methods can be applied in the laboratory rather than left to a class period, when perhaps the right opportunity would not present itself or when enthusiasm might have died down. On the other hand, many individuals prefer having the usual class periods in the regular classroom and one or two periods a week in the social-studies laboratory. In many large schools that possess but one laboratory for the social studies, only one or two periods a week can be given to each of the classes in the various social studies.

Assignments and Workbooks

In the illustrations previously given in the laboratory method, it is evident that the assignment for the work must be specific and definite. The pupils must be aware of all the tasks expected of them. The maps to be drawn, the graphs or charts to be prepared, the problems to be solved, and the questions to be answered must be perfectly clear in the minds of the pupils. In some schools, mimeographed sheets are given to each pupil. These sheets contain specific directions concerning the procedure that the pupils are to follow and the nature of the work to be done. In other schools, specific oral directions are given. Along with this demand for definiteness in the assignment there has developed a movement for the use of laboratory manuals or workbooks.

The workbook movement really began during the nineteen-twenties, but the origin of the idea goes back much further. Toward the close of the last century, outline aids were published. In the early part of the

present century, books containing outline maps to be filled in by pupils appeared. Soon other instructional aids were added. The revolt against the traditional recitation method gave impetus to the movement, especially when supervised study and laboratory procedures were emphasized. In recent years, the movement has begun to decline.

Extravagant claims have been made for the workbook procedure. Those who have compiled the books make such claims for their work as: it covers more ground, saves time and labor, simplifies study, emphasizes the individual nature of study, stimulates the work of the pupil, makes study more interesting and profitable. One author states that his workbook is effective because it combines the outline, laboratory, and problem methods. Indeed, it would be hard to discover any worth-while claim for the teaching of the social studies that could not be found in some workbook.

Workbooks differ considerably. Some are based upon a particular text; others, on a particular course, regardless of textbook. They differ in form. Some contain one type of material; others, an entirely different type. It would be hard to find many items that are common to all workbooks. All emphasize written work, generally of the type of filling-in exercises. Usually they are organized on the unit basis. Included in the material that may be found in workbooks are the following: outlines of the subject, outline maps, spaces for pictures to be pasted in, questions to be answered, filling-in exercises, lists of textbook readings, lists of reference books, source materials and pictures, overviews, charts and graphs, things to do, and tests.

It has been indicated that the workbook movement is beginning to decline. One factor is the excessive cost that is entailed, because each pupil requires a new workbook for each course. Many also criticize the procedure. They see in it little more than activities of an inconsequential nature. It puts all pupils on the same basis, with little thought of their individual needs. It creates in the pupil the attitude of a task to be done. Naturally, all such work has to be performed under the eye of the teacher; otherwise extensive copying may be done. Although this type of procedure may be of aid to the beginning teacher, it should not satisfy the experienced teacher of creative ability. Efficient instruction must be conceived in terms of the objectives that have been formulated. Teacher planning should be superior to any ready-made procedure.

Dangers in the Laboratory Method

Aside from the criticism that laboratory work may become extremely mechanical, one of its chief dangers lies in its tendency to degenerate into nothing more than activity with unimportant results. This charge has been

brought against the laboratory method many times. When using this method, the teacher should ask himself constantly: "What is the educational value of the work that my pupils are doing, and how does it contribute to the objectives I have set up?" Undoubtedly much value has been gained by pupils in drawing maps. However, it must be remembered that such an activity is not an end in itself, but only a means to an end. The desired goal is a better understanding of the phase of the subject that is being studied. It is easy to permit map drawing to become little more than aimless activity; it is easier still to confuse such activity with real education. Just because pupils are busy and even greatly interested does not mean that the activity is purposeful and valuable.

What is true of map making is also true of all the other activities in the laboratory. Many problems and topics may be better studied by using some other method. There may be situations where telling is more economical and just as effective as having pupils waste much time in finding out certain things for themselves. Occasionally, we push the educational dictum "learn by doing" beyond reasonable bounds. Few people have learned that the world is round by traveling around it, yet most people know that the world is spherical. There is a place in the schools for the social-studies laboratory in which pupils are given the proper equipment to attack and solve problems, to make summaries and outlines, to draw maps, to prepare charts and graphs, and to carry out all the other necessary activities in the teaching process. If we are to extend the social horizon of pupils, deepen their understanding of human society, and train them to carry out their civic duties, we must utilize all the possible aids necessary to do so.

✓ The Dalton Laboratory Plan

A special form of the laboratory plan which has been indorsed enthusiastically by a number of educators in England, as well as in our own country, was advanced several years ago under the name of the Dalton laboratory plan. It was first worked out in a private school at Dalton, Massachusetts, by Helen S. Parkhurst. It was later adopted in the public schools of Dalton and then in schools in many parts of this country. Educators of many countries have studied the plan; and at the present time, it is in operation in a number of schools here and abroad, generally in a modified form.

According to the Dalton plan, the school is organized into laboratories, one for each subject in the curriculum. The plan has been utilized from the third grade to the twelfth. Each pupil makes a contract for a month's work in each subject that he undertakes. He then receives a mimeographed assignment sheet in each of his subjects for the work of the month. After

receiving the assignment, he may enter any one of the laboratories to begin his work, and there is no time limit to his stay. For instance, if he desires to begin his work by studying history, he enters the history laboratory. The time that he spends there depends upon no one but himself. As he must complete all his assignments before receiving any new ones, it follows that he must distribute his time among the laboratories in the subjects that he is taking. He may spend more time, however, on the subjects that suit his taste, although all his work must be completed before he receives his assignments for the next month.

Since much depends on the assignments for the success of the plan, they are rather comprehensive and complete. They introduce the pupil to the subject, make definite references to the materials of instruction, give definite directions on how to proceed, and provide for all the work that the pupil is expected to do. In the social studies, this plan includes the working out of problems, answering questions in notebooks, taking notes on references, writing themes and papers, drawing maps, and preparing graphs.

There is much to commend in the Dalton plan. The pupil proceeds at his own rate or progress. He is not retarded in his work because of the presence of slower pupils, nor is he lost owing to the proximity of superior pupils. If he meets with difficulty, he is free to consult with the teacher. Then again, even though there are no regular or stated class periods, occasional group conferences are held where pupils who have reached approximately the same level of progress meet with a teacher for conference or for other group activities.

Many objections have been made to the Dalton plan. It can be easily seen that little opportunity is given for the motivation of the pupil. The work is handed to him, and he performs his part as best he can. Unless the plan is modified, there is little opportunity for the socialization of the pupil. The plan stresses the individual and not the group. Probably the chief criticism of the plan is that it tends to encourage the feverish copying from textbooks and reference books, so that often it results in the pupil's getting little thought and value from the printed page. The excessive use of the notebook and the practice of having textbooks constantly open before the pupil present the temptation to do much copying and to shirk work that requires real concentration.

In order to avoid some of the evils and dangers inherent in the plan, modifications and special provisions have been made. In many places where the plan is used, special arrangements have been made to permit socialization. This is done by devoting some time to group gatherings, assembly programs, socialized recitations, and socialized activities of other kinds. In order to prevent pupils from copying too closely from books,

others have introduced the problem method into the plan. Thus the weaknesses in the plan as originally worked out can be remedied and overcome.

Summary

The need for equipment in the social studies has given rise to the idea of a social-studies laboratory. Teachers do not agree that a special laboratory is needed in these subjects, although all emphasize the importance of equipment. The most necessary item is books, but teachers differ concerning the kinds of books. Whether a school has a laboratory or not, the library should contain much easily accessible reading material for the social studies. Teachers differ as to the necessary equipment for a social-studies laboratory. Most emphasize a seating arrangement in the form of tables and chairs, the bulletin board, and the blackboard. The importance of other items varies with the subject being taught and the teacher in charge. Some have thought that a well-equipped laboratory should contain various types of projectors, a phonograph, a radio, and a television set. The cost, not only of equipment but also of room space, indicates that not many schools will have laboratories for the social studies. Teachers should urge administrators to buy more equipment each year so that the classroom may take on a laboratory aspect. Supervised study is the method generally used in the laboratory, and the work therefore is largely individualized. In this type of work, the assignment must be definite. As a result, laboratory manuals and workbooks have been devised. Educators differ as to their value. These plans have been criticized for their lack of provision for socialization. Another criticism of such procedures is the tendency of the activity to degenerate into busy work, of little educational value. To meet these criticisms, the laboratory procedure has been combined with other methods. The Dalton plan, which has been successful in many places, is a special form of the laboratory method. In this plan, the entire school is organized on a laboratory basis.

Questions

1. What is meant by a social-studies laboratory?
2. What is the difference between the methods employed in the natural-science laboratory and those used in the social-studies laboratory?
3. Compile a list of books for use in a subject of the social studies.
4. Evaluate the equipment necessary for teaching the social studies, and place in order of importance the various items for a particular subject.
5. Show how the teaching ability of the teacher is more important than classroom equipment.
6. What advantages and disadvantages are there in the tables-and-chairs arrangement of a room?
7. Give the factors that prohibit the introduction of social-studies laboratories in the average school.

8. Discuss the relative merits of a social-studies laboratory and a well-equipped classroom.
9. Outline a unit of work to use with the laboratory method.
10. What are the advantages and disadvantages in the use of workbooks?
11. Indicate the values and the dangers in the laboratory method.
12. Describe the Dalton plan. Criticize the Dalton plan.

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CHAPTER IX

UNIT PROCEDURE

Organizing the Course of Study

In a few American schools, especially those in the larger school systems, the teacher receives specific instructions in regard to the courses that he is to teach and also an outline of each course. In most schools, however, the teacher receives no instructions. He knows little more than that he is to teach certain courses, such as American history or civics or economics. He understands that there is a textbook for each pupil and that there are perhaps a few books on the subject in the library. The teacher is therefore confronted with the problem as to what subject matter to select and how it should be arranged.

The organization of the course will depend upon the aims and objectives that the teacher has set up. Under the old *memoriter* system, the chief objective was that the pupil should memorize a number of facts. All that was needed was a textbook containing the factual material. The teacher assigned a certain number of pages. The task of the pupil was to memorize the facts presented on the pages assigned. At present, however, as far as the social studies are concerned, the aims and objectives center in the understanding of facts, events, and movements and not in the memorization of them. Of course, even today some teachers lean toward the *memoriter* method; and a few others, even though they have set up modern aims and objectives, frequently use procedures that are contradictory to their expressed goals. The problem that presents itself to the modern teacher of history and the other social studies is how to arrange the course so that the pupil will understand, as far as he possibly can, the meaning of all its phases.

It is evident that a better understanding of two events will ensue if they are studied in relationship to each other. If other related events are studied in relation to those two, a still better understanding will result. If it is seen that these events are all a part of a great movement, that movement is better understood, as well as the events themselves. The tendency today, therefore, in teaching the social studies, is not to teach isolated events but, wherever possible, to show the relationship of events, especially in connection with their affinity to larger movements.

The setting up of broader aims in the social studies has resulted in a

marked trend toward the organization of subject matter into larger divisions. There has, of course, been much difference of opinion in regard to the arrangement of the content, and many plans have been evolved. Much attention has been given to a consideration of topical plans, to the study of the organization of material into problems, to an investigation of the "contract" of the Dalton plan, and to the development of unitary plans of organization. Whatever the plan, the general tendency today is to organize the materials of instruction into large divisions.

The Unitary Plan of Organization

Among the influences that have brought about the acceptance of the unitary plan of organization, Gestalt psychology, first developed in Germany, has been important. The Gestalt psychologists emphasize the unity of the human organism and stress the idea that human behavior and reactions must be considered in complete wholes. This psychology is based on the theory that physical, psychological, and biological happenings are formed through patterns or integrated units. In accordance with this idea, the unitary plan provides for arranging the work and activities of a course into fairly large units, each focused on some significant understanding, which, together with an integrated combination of facts, skills, habits, and attitudes, modify a pupil's thinking or behavior and result in developing his personality. It is apparent, however, that Gestalt conceptions cannot solve many of the basic problems of psychology, such as the mechanism of sensation, but it has contributed much to the development of modern psychology.

The organization of subject matter into units has received much attention in recent years. Many educators have played a part in developing the unit plan of instruction. The system has been highly developed by Dr. Henry C. Morrison of the University of Chicago.¹ Before proceeding with a discussion of the plan, it is essential to have a correct conception of a unit. Although there is no exact agreement as to a definition of the term, there is a general concurrence in the idea that the unit emphasizes the organization of material in related groups, each large enough to be significant, but small enough to be seen as a whole by the pupil. According

¹ The Morrison plan has been widely accepted, but a number of educators have attacked the formulation of units from the curriculum point of view. They insist that it is the task of the teacher to select the materials of instruction and work out the units on the basis of the experiences of the pupils. In other words, the units must be developed on the basis of pupil readiness or preparedness, as well as pupil interests and needs. See W. J. Grinstead, "The Unit of Learning: Its Meaning and Principles," *Educational Outlook*, 7 (November, 1932), pp. 9-20; A. J. Jones, "The Unit of Learning," *Educational Outlook*, 9 (November, 1934), pp. 31-41; A. J. Jones, E. D. Grizzell, and W. J. Grinstead, *Principles of Unit Construction* (New York, 1939).

to Dr. Morrison, the "learning unit is a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation of personality."² This definition, of course, includes the social sciences as well as the natural sciences. The unit must be capable of being understood rather than of being remembered.

In regard to the unit in history, Dr. Morrison states:

Truth to tell, the essential story of the past contained in great movements and abiding achievement, which is capable of enlightening the pupil, is comparatively brief. The larger story is full of incidents and even of great episodes which had their day and vanished explaining little or nothing, least of all our present civilization. It has of course much which is of concern to the professional historian, the economist and political scientist, the jurist and sociologist. But the secondary school has no concern with professional training.

. . . What to select in terms of our cardinal principles is a matter of historical judgment.³

The unit in history, then, purposes to achieve in the pupil a series of understandings which help to explain the society in which he lives. As in other fields, the unit in history must be comprehensive enough to have scope and utility and must contribute directly to the pupil's fundamental adjustment.

The proponents of the unit plan draw a sharp distinction between a unit and a chapter heading and between a unit and a topic. The unit, in any of the social studies, must be a "comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment." A mere division of subject matter which cannot be understood except in its relation to other topics or other chapters is not a unit. Courses in history, then, must be divided into their more significant movements. Thus the Industrial Revolution would be a unit, whereas a discussion of the cotton gin and its effects on the production of cotton and on the cotton industry would be a topic.

Examples of Unitary Organization

To make clearer the concept of the unit organization of subject matter, a few examples will be given. It must be kept in mind that these have been worked out for particular classes and naturally they cannot be followed by any teacher without due regard to the factors connected with each particular class and also to the aims and objectives set up. In one of these plans, a course in world history is divided into two parts, each

² H. C. MORRISON, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago, Ill., rev. ed., 1936), p. 24.

³ H. C. MORRISON, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago, Ill., rev. ed., 1936), pp. 209-210.

of which takes a year to complete. The units for each are outlined as follows:

PART ONE. SURVEY OF CIVILIZATION FROM PRIMITIVE TIMES TO THE MIDDLE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

- Unit I. Primitive Life and Oriental Civilization
 II. Greece—A World Enlightened
 III. Rome—A World Consolidated
 IV. The Middle Ages—Transition to Modern Civilization
 V. The Crusading Movement
 VI. Beginnings of the Modern World—The Expansion of Commerce and the Great Awakening
 VII. Colonial Expansion and the New World

PART TWO. MODERN HISTORY, COMBINING EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN, SINCE THE MIDDLE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

- Unit I. The Industrial Revolution
 II. The French Revolution
 III. The Era of Metternich
 IV. The Development of Nationality
 V. The Slavery Controversy
 VI. The Westward Movement
 VII. Expansion of the Industrial Nations
 VIII. The World War and World Reconstruction ⁴

In a course in American history in the senior high school, the following units were organized:

- Unit I. Discovery and Settlement of America
 II. The Revolt of the British Colonies
 III. The Organization of the United States
 IV. The Development of the New Nation
 V. Territorial Expansion and Sectional Strife
 VI. An Era of Industrial Development and National Growth
 VII. The United States and World Power ⁵

In a course in civics organized in units, the following with divisions is suggested:

DEMOCRACY IN AMERICA

- Unit I. What Democracy Means
 Democracy and Other Forms of Government
 "We the People"
 Citizenship in the American Democracy

⁴ H. C. HILL and A. F. BARNARD, *Studies in Secondary Education*, I, University of Chicago Monographs (Chicago, 1923), pp. 92-95, 103-107.

⁵ FORREST PAIGE, "An Approach to United States History in Senior High School," *Historical Outlook*, 21 (October, 1930), p. 277.

- II. Living under a Democratic Form of Government
 - Our National Government
 - State Government
 - Local Government
- III. Supporting the Work and Directing the Policies of Our Government
 - Financing Our Government
 - Political Parties and Elections
 - Public Opinion
- IV. American Democracy and World Affairs
 - The United States and Other Nations
- V. Building and Maintaining Democracy
 - The Home
 - The School
 - The Church
 - The Community
- VI. Making Better Citizens in a Democracy
 - Health
 - Leisure-time Activities
 - Safety from Accidents and Fire
 - Safety from Crime
- VII. Living and Working in the American Democracy
 - Making a Living
 - Industry, Business, and the Government
 - Buying and Selling
 - Transportation and Communication
- VIII. Improving Work and Living in the American Democracy
 - Using Our Wealth Wisely as a Nation
 - Improving Relations between Employers and Employees
 - Providing Security for the Worker
 - Providing Greater Security for Farmers
 - Maintaining Standards of Living ⁶

All the unit courses outlined above were organized for certain grades. Naturally, a course in American history organized for the seventh grade would show marked differences from one meant for the eleventh. Thus the problem of gradation must be considered in working out the units. Marked differences are also found among the plans of those who have organized the same course for classes that are in the same grade, but that consist of different types of pupils.

In 1935, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools organized a Committee on Experimental College Entrance Units. The Committee interested itself in the problem of materials that could give high-school pupils a realistic picture of the way American government

⁶ W. M. MUTHARD, S. M. HASTINGS, and C. B. GOSNELL, *Democracy in America* (New York, rev. ed., 1951).

operates. As a result, the Committee enlisted the services of various individuals to prepare units on the subject. The units have been published separately, from time to time since 1939, and although some of them may not conform entirely to what some would regard as a strict definition of the unit, they do contain the material for a well-rounded study of the subject. Besides the material of the unit, each contains suggestions of things to do and a reading list. The units that have appeared are as follows: *Why Taxes? What They Buy for Us* (Krug); *Civil Service: Our Government as an Employer* (Carrothers); *Housing in the United States* (Troelstrup); *Democracy and Its Competitors* (Kalp and Morgan); *Latin America and the World Struggle* (Crary); *Defense of the Western Hemisphere* (Kalp and Morgan); *Conservation of Natural Resources* (Rhyne and Lory); *In the Service of Uncle Sam* (Kalp); *Youth and Jobs* (Ward and Selberg); *The Government in Business* (Keohane).

Another commendable group of units was issued jointly by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. This series known as "Problems in American Life" was published between 1942 and 1945. Twenty-two units were prepared. The titles are:

1. How Our Government Raises and Spends Money.
2. American Youth Faces the Future.
3. Man and His Machines.
4. Recreation and Morale.
5. Race and Cultural Relations.
6. Democracy Versus Dictatorship.
7. The American Family.
8. Agriculture.
9. Crime.
10. Economic Problems of the Postwar World.
11. War: The Causes, Effects, and Control of International Violence.
12. Making Our Government Efficient.
13. Population.
14. Public Opinion in War and Peace.
15. International Organization after the War.
16. America's Schools.
17. The Health of a Nation.
18. Politics in Action.
19. The American Standard of Living.
20. The American Way of Business.
21. Urban and Rural Living.
22. Motor Vehicle Transportation in American Life.

Problems in Organizing Units in History

Evidently it is possible to divide certain subjects into natural units. This is true, in general, for all the social studies except history. For instance, in a course in problems of American democracy, there may be eight or nine distinct units. It is possible for a group of teachers to come to more or less agreement in regard to the units that make up such a course. This is not true of the subject of history. History is more than the most important aspects of present-day life, because it deals with the past. What constitutes a unit in history? We may agree with the definition that it is a "comprehensive and significant part or aspect of the environment." Yet what is a significant and comprehensive phase of history? It would be hard to find two historians who could come to complete agreement on this. There are certain movements, such as the Industrial Revolution, about which some agreement may be reached. The significance of other movements is very difficult to evaluate. For instance, in the nineteenth century, we find that democracy is a political ideal in Europe and also that nationalism has become an effective force. Later in the century, the power of imperialism becomes obvious. How are we to study these forces? Are they three distinct units or parts of one? To be sure, they may all be conceived as aspects of the Industrial Revolution, yet the first two—democracy and nationalism—may also be regarded as phases of the French Revolution. Can these phases be best understood by lumping them together in one unit or by studying them separately?

At best, units in history are but artificial divisions which are necessary, owing to the limitations of the human mind. Imperialism, territorial expansion, national growth, and the First World War may be conceived as phases of the Industrial Revolution. Yet is it wise to study them all in one unit? Such a treatment of these aspects of history would confuse the pupil, and he would be lost in a maze of factual material. The very idea of organization would not be achieved. Ideally, of course, it is best to see human experience as one vast, integrated whole. Anything approaching such a situation, however, can be viewed only by a few. The majority become hopelessly confused among the facts of history. The best we can do, especially with high-school pupils, is to create an understanding of what we term some of the broad aspects of history.

In choosing the units for the course in history and the material necessary to be focused on the unit, the teacher must bear in mind the limitations of the minds of his pupils. The age and grade of the group, the type of pupils, and the time allowed for the course are factors to be considered. The teacher must know what understandings he wishes to bring about in the minds of his pupils and also what material is essential to

bring about these understandings. This requires a judicious selection of units and of material for the units. Naturally, all irrelevant material is omitted, and a careful selection of what is relevant must be made. The amount of reading that may be used is large. Yet the presentation of too much material will become confusing to the average mind. Where to draw the line becomes the problem of the teacher, especially since some of the pupils can assimilate more than others. The number of units will vary with different teachers. Some teachers, in a given subject, see fifteen or more significant aspects; others may see as few as seven or eight. Naturally, this has a bearing on the material to be selected for each unit. It is essential, also, that units on the whole be shorter for junior-high-school pupils than for those more advanced. Otherwise, the younger pupils will lose sight of the unit theme in a maze of subtopics.

Those who have been accustomed to dividing their history courses into seven or more main topics will perhaps wonder what the difference may be between their topics and the units. There may be no difference. Many of the names of the divisions into units are similar to the names of the divisions of our textbooks. Some of the exponents of the unit plan try to see a difference between a large topic and a unit. Indeed, some have thought that by rewording a topic one would have a unit. This is quite similar to the fallacy mentioned in the chapter on the problem method, where it has been pointed out that some think that the mastery of a subject can be insured by changing the wording of the old-fashioned topic into the modern form of a problem. Thus if we change the topic "The Age of Discovery" into the problem "How America Was Discovered," according to some educators a great advance has been made along the road to learning. In the same way, many have stressed the wording of the title of a unit. We are told that such a title as "The First World War" is a topic and suggests merely a narrative sequence; but if we change the title and call it "Making the World Safe for Democracy" or "The Overthrow of Autocracy," a problem is raised in the mind of the pupil that calls for solution in terms of understanding or, as some put it, the mind of the pupil is challenged.

The mere naming of a topic or a unit has little value in comparison with what the teacher aims to accomplish in the understanding of the topic or unit, with the materials of instruction contained in the unit, and with the method and procedures that he follows. No intelligent teacher today in teaching the First World War begins with 1914 and ends in 1918. What the teacher does is to emphasize the causes and results of that catastrophe. To do this, he must go back at least to Bismarck, to the system of conflicting alliances, militarism, nationalism, imperialism, diplomacy, and other features. The results of the war were not only the bound-

ary changes but the effects that followed, including the problems raised by the Treaty of Versailles, which terminated so disastrously as to be one of the major causes of the Second World War. Indeed the catastrophe of 1914 to 1918 can better be understood under its old title, "First World War," than by a new title like "Making the World Safe for Democracy," unless we wish to change the meaning of the word "democracy." Making the world safe for democracy was a rational excuse for entering the war. If we mean by the "Overthrow of Autocracy" the dethronement of the German Kaiser and the Russian Czar, we are considering merely results of the war.

An important problem that always faces us when arranging the history course in units is that of chronological sequence. This same problem confronts those who would arrange the course in the form of problems or in any other way that takes recognition of the larger movements. Should the units in history follow largely a chronological scheme, or should one ignore chronology and focus attention on the related material under one head? The answer to this question will help the teacher to determine what units should comprise the course. Most of the courses outlined in this chapter show respect for the chronological order, although there are minor departures from it. For example, in the course on the survey of civilization, the units follow a definite time sequence. However, the rise of Islam is placed in the unit on the crusading movement; whereas if chronology were the only criterion, it would be placed in the preceding unit.

Some think it is a mistake to consider chronological order at all in outlining the units. They would choose their units with little regard for time. It is much better to have some respect for chronology. A safe rule may be laid down that chronological order must be followed unless it can be definitely shown that the violation of the order will produce better results. Too many have violated chronology first and have then tried to prove that what they have done is right. In the example on the rise of Islam, it may easily be seen that the order was properly violated, when it is considered that the teacher was planning to secure certain understandings, especially the factors leading to the Crusades. The teacher must constantly bear in mind that there is such a thing as continuity in history, which sets history apart from the other social studies. Each movement and each event of a period bear the mark of that period and can best be understood in the light of that age.

The Content of the Unit

After the units have been chosen for a course, the next task is to select the material for each unit that will be necessary for its understanding.

This is where the careful discrimination of the teacher is needed. No material must be included that does not bear directly on the unit and aid in the understanding of it. Nothing can be added merely because the teacher thinks that the pupil ought to know it. The material must be selected and arranged from the point of view of the interpretation of the unit.

Obviously, it would not be hard to follow this procedure in writing out units on such topics as crime, education, and race. Most difficulty is encountered with the study of history. Many of the examples given in educational literature on the history unit really violate the unit idea. An example will be given to indicate the organization of a unit, with a criticism of what is sometimes done. The period following the Civil War may be studied under the unit "A Period of Industrial Development." The problem now is to find the major topics of this unit that will enable the pupil to understand it. After some study, the topics may shape up somewhat as follows:

1. The Agricultural Problem
2. The Backward South
3. Transportation and Communication
4. Growth of Big Business
5. Organization of Labor
6. Government Regulation
7. The Financial Problem
8. The Tariff Problem

The next step is to work out suitable subdivisions for each topic. This is where most of the difficulty in organizing the history unit arises. Often, the attempt is made to include too much material. In working out this unit, frequently the period of reconstruction is treated in relation to the Civil War rather than in relation to industrial development. The plans of reconstruction, the impeachment of Johnson, and the politics of the period are emphasized so that the idea of the unit is lost. What should be pointed out is that the refusal to follow the plans of Lincoln and Johnson and the inauguration of the congressional plan created such conditions that the South was held back economically for a generation. Nothing should be included unless it aids in the understanding of the unit.

To bring this out more clearly, the material selected for one of the units in a course on the survey of civilization is presented. In a unit on "The Ancient Romans—Consolidators of the World," the following have been selected:

1. The early Romans and their home: the site of Rome—the seven hills, the Tiber, the Mediterranean; the position of Italy and its advantages—trade conquests; conquest of Italy.

2. How the Romans conquered the Mediterranean world: the Roman army, Spain, Carthage, and the Punic wars; Greece and Macedonia; Egypt and Western Asia; Gaul and Britain.

3. How the Romans organized and governed their conquests: government under the Republic—Senate, consuls, tribunes, assemblies; government under the Empire—the city of Rome, Italy; the provinces; the Roman peace; roads and communications; land and citizenship.

4. Roman civilization: industry; slavery; religion; attitude toward Christianity; education; games and amusements; homes; art and architecture—Forum, Colosseum, Circus Maximus, triumphal arches, palaces; literature—poetry, oratory, history, philosophy; our debt to Rome.

5. Why Rome declined: slavery; luxury; corruption; taxation; decrease in population; incoming of barbarism.⁷

The Morrison Plan of Instruction

Inasmuch as many teachers who use the unit organization follow the Morrison plan, that system will be considered. Dr. Morrison has set up a procedure whereby he proposes that the pupil shall accomplish what he calls the mastery of the unit. This procedure consists of five steps. In some respects, they are like the five Herbartian steps, which played so important a part in the United States for almost a generation. However, in other respects, the Morrison plan is very unlike the Herbartian method. In order that the likenesses and differences between the two procedures may be seen, a brief description of both will be given.

The five formal Herbartian steps are:

1. Preparation: The aim of the lesson is stated, and the pupils are given a clear idea of the trend of the lesson. The related knowledge of the subject that the pupils already possess is recalled in order to provide an apperceptive basis for the new material. The emphasis upon the aim of the lesson, the idea of proper sequence, the importance of apperception, and the effectiveness of inductive teaching are the elements of this step.

2. Presentation: The new material is presented. This may take the form of a variety of ways—lecturing, studying, reading, conversing, questioning, or discussing. In the mind of the teacher must be the important generalization that will be ultimately reached in the fourth step, and the new material is presented with this in view.

⁷ H. E. WILSON, "Systematic Teaching of High School History," *Historical Outlook*, 19 (March, 1928), p. 123.

3. Comparison: This step is intended to bring together related elements so that the fourth step will proceed out of it in a natural and forceful manner. Common features are recognized, and contrasts, which make likenesses more real, are also involved.

4. Generalization: The rule, definition, or principle that was arrived at as a result of step three is now stated. The climax to the inductive process is now reached. The generalization must be discovered by the pupils as a result of the work of the previous steps. The difficulty of having a class of individuals whose abilities vary greatly arrive at the generalization at the same time is obvious. Another difficulty is found in the expression of generalization by pupils. Such must necessarily be abstract.

5. Application: The generalization is now applied to new particulars. This is done by a review of the application of the rule, definition, or principle to the material learned or by applying the generalization to new problems or situations.

The Herbartian method of instruction required the formal planning of lessons, each lesson proceeding from induction to deduction. As a carefully planned procedure, it has had an important and valuable influence on the development of teaching technique. It came to be applied, however, to all lessons, even where inductive-deductive logic could not function. Owing to this and also to its abstractness, to the devotion to the one method, to the emphasis upon the work of the teacher rather than upon that of the pupils, and to the rise of new methods, the Herbartian plan as a whole has been largely discredited.

Morrison's five steps of procedure for the unit are:

1. Exploration: In this step, the teacher ascertains what background the pupil has for starting the new unit. This is done by a written test, an oral quiz, or a class discussion. The step brings out the apperceptive background of the pupil in the subject and prepares him for the new material.

2. Presentation: The teacher presents to the class by lecture or talk the major essentials of the unit. After the presentation, a test is given to discover if the material has found a place in the minds of the pupils. If it has not, the lecture is presented again. The pupils must show comprehension of the unit before proceeding with the next step.

3. Assimilation: The pupils now assimilate the material necessary to give them an understanding of the unit. We find the pupils reading, studying, writing, talking with one another, and consulting the instructor. The method may be classified as a combination of supervised study and laboratory procedure, with stress placed on the "supervision of study." Indi-

vidual differences are provided for by permitting those who complete the unit first to engage in other activities.

4. Organization: The class is brought together again, and each pupil is required to write a logical and convincing outline which demonstrates that he understands the unit.

5. Recitation: In this step, there must necessarily be a difference between the ideal and actual practice. According to the ideal, each pupil will present the unit to the class much in the same manner as the teacher presented it in the initial lecture. In actual practice, however, time does not permit such a procedure, not to mention the boredom for the class that would result. The usual procedure is to have floor talks by five or more and then have the remainder of the class make written recitations on the unit. During the final step in the next unit, another five or more pupils are given the opportunity to recite.

No exact time limit can be placed on each of the steps necessary in understanding the unit. Indeed, the unit itself may be long or short, depending on the kind of subject, the nature of the unit, and the ability and background of the class. The division of time among the steps will depend on the progress of the class. Ordinarily, one or two periods are required for exploration. The presentation lecture is generally less than twenty minutes; but with testing and representations, many class sessions might be taken up by this step for some pupils. The assimilation phase is the one that will occupy most of the time. This period may occupy from four to six weeks on a unit in history. One or two periods are sufficient for organization; two are generally enough for the recitation in the social studies.

Attention should be called to the fact that these five steps of Dr. Morrison were not intended to be the procedure for all types of learning. They were outlined for the science-type unit, which included the unit in the social studies. Other procedures are outlined for other types. The teaching of appreciation, for example, requires an entirely different approach.

In evaluating Dr. Morrison's procedure, one can easily see that he has utilized the best in modern educational practice and theory. The system may be far from perfect, yet it does provide for individual differences, remedial procedures, a scientific system of testing which allows for follow-up work, the use of the sound method of supervised study under laboratory conditions, and, to some extent, socialized procedure.

Under the Morrison plan, complete mastery of the unit is claimed if the pupil has achieved the five steps of learning. The question arises as to whether or not complete mastery can be reached in the social studies. It is a fallacy to think that what can be done in one subject can be done

in another. In arithmetic, one either learns a process of addition or does not learn it. By studying the various processes in addition, an entire unit may be completely mastered. The same cannot be said of a unit in the social studies. The question centers in what is meant by mastery in the social studies. No one can define mastery in these subjects, for it is a purely relative term. For instance, suppose that a pupil studies all the elements outlined in the unit. He would have an understanding of the unit. Yet that understanding is not static; it is subject to change. If more material was given on the same unit or a more intensive study of the material assigned was undertaken in which added events came to the knowledge of the pupil, his understanding would undergo modification. The amount of material that could be brought to bear on the unit is beyond the power of a high-school pupil. On the other hand, suppose that one element in the material of the unit were omitted from the study, would the pupil have no understanding of it? On the contrary, he would have an understanding that would be modified by adding the missed element.

The Unitary Plan and the Teacher

The preceding discussion of the unit makes it evident, whether we use Morrison's procedure or not, that its use in teaching requires a superior type of teacher. The idea that anyone can teach the social studies no longer exists. The teacher must be thoroughly grounded in the subject, or the unit will have little meaning for him. To accept the units of someone else in a haphazard fashion and begin to teach would be not much better than to take a textbook and teach from it alone. The unit must be understood and felt to be a unit by the teacher himself. Its relations to the course must be clearly seen. The teacher must then consider how the pupils are to be brought to an understanding of the unit. He must solve such questions as what assimilative material is necessary, what should be eliminated, and where the necessary material may be found. He must know how that material is to be presented to bring about the most economical results. This calls for real teaching skill.

One of the most important factors that the teacher must take into account when teaching by units is the amount of assimilative material available. It would be useless for a teacher to select a series of units for a course and then find that the material available was so meager that an understanding of some of the units would be vague. In choosing the units, reference must be made constantly to the material available. This does not mean that one must have a preponderance of material in a given unit. Attention has been called to the fact that in the social studies understanding is a relative term. The understanding of significant phases

and movements might be obtained to a satisfactory degree, despite the fact that the material on the different aspects of the units is not so much as we would like.

Another factor that needs special attention is the discarding of irrelevant material. Teachers are prone to include in the unit extraneous material, merely because they think that it is important to know it. A phase of good teaching consists in the ability to eliminate irrelevant facts. The trouble with much of our history teaching in the past has been the inclusion of too many isolated facts which had no significance to the pupils. It is indeed more important to have pupils know the relations between facts, especially the relation of the facts to a significant movement, than to be lost in a maze of factual materials.

The Extreme Topical Method

Before closing this chapter on the unit, it will be well to mention another plan of teaching history by means of large topics. There are many differences between this plan and the unit plan. However, as the unit was considered a result of the movement to teach subjects in large divisions in order that a better understanding might be obtained, we can compare the two. According to this plan, history is divided into nine, ten, or eleven significant phases, such as government, religion, and industry. Each phase is then treated separately. When the phase on government is taken up, the pupil will study government from the beginning of the period to the end, as for example, in a general course in American history, from Jamestown to the present, or in a course on the recent history of the United States, from 1865 to the present. Consequently, when the phase on religion is begun, it will be given a like treatment. All the divisions are taken up until the whole series is completed. Undoubtedly there is a close relation of material in each topic. Material is grouped according to specific heads. There are, however, serious objections to this system of organization, although many teachers who have tried the plan have reported success. In the first place, the phases are not so significant as the units and do not lend themselves so readily to the understanding, chiefly because they cover too long a period of time. Again, there is greater violation of the continuity of history than with the unit plan. Enough has been said of the value of realizing the continuity of history for one to form his own conclusions. However, the extreme topical method has value for review purposes after a section of history has been taught in its proper chronological order.

Summary

In most schools, the teacher is responsible for the organization of the courses that he teaches. The organization of each course will depend

upon the aims and objectives. It must be borne in mind that events become significant when they are seen in relation to one another and to a large movement. The trend today, therefore, is toward larger divisions of subject matter, and this trend has been greatly influenced by the acceptance of the general principles of Gestalt psychology. In accord with this tendency, the division of subject matter into units is receiving much attention. Dr. Henry C. Morrison has done much toward developing the unitary plan of instruction. From the teacher's point of view, the two important tasks in organizing a course on the unit basis are the determination of the natural divisions of the subject and the selection of the materials necessary for the understanding of each unit. Most subjects readily lend themselves to a division into units. History is a subject of continuity and, therefore, the divisions are harder to make, chiefly owing to the difficulty caused by the overlapping of the units. In teaching secondary-school pupils, it is necessary to divide history into its broad aspects. The choice of divisions and of the materials essential for understanding the unit depends upon the pupils. Such factors as age, ability, and time enter in. The division of subject matter into units raises the old problem of topical *versus* chronological arrangement. In high-school courses, the organization upon the basis of units should follow the chronological order as much as possible, unless the violation of it produces better results. Dr. Morrison has set up five steps of procedure in order to master each unit. These are similar, in some respects, to the Herbartian steps, although they differ in other respects. Morrison's plan merits careful consideration, although it should be remembered that in the social studies, the mastery of the unit is purely a relative term. Many other unitary plans have been devised which have gained more or less acceptance.

Questions

1. Show how the organization of a course depends upon the aims and objectives.
2. How has Gestalt psychology influenced unitary organization?
3. What does the study of the unit bring about that older forms of organization of subject matter often failed to achieve?
4. What is the difference between a unit and a topic?
5. Choose units for a course that you expect to teach, and compare your list with those of others in the same field.
6. Why is the problem of gradation so important in the unit plan of organization?
7. Choose a unit in your special field, and select the material necessary for the understanding of the unit.
8. Why is it difficult to work out units in history?
9. Why is it impossible to have complete agreement as to what constitutes units in history?
10. What is the problem of chronological *versus* topical order?
11. What is the best plan to follow in choosing between the chronological and the topical approach to the organization of the materials of instruction?

12. Compare and contrast the Herbartian and the Morrison steps of procedure.
13. Name the advantages of the Morrison plan of instruction.
14. Show why the mastery of a unit in the social studies is purely a relative term.
15. Why is the problem of selecting and discarding material so important in the unit of the social studies?
16. What are the advantages and disadvantages of organizing a history course on the basis of significant phases, such as government, religion, and industry, rather than on the unit plan?

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CHAPTER X

THE MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

The Place of the Social Studies in the Curriculum

In considering the place of the social studies in the curriculum, one is confronted with the time element. The problem of what should be omitted in the curriculum is just as important as what should be included. The amount of knowledge is large, but the time of the pupil is limited. The average pupil takes an equivalent of five major subjects a year. The social studies must be considered in relation to the rest of the curriculum—English, mathematics, science, language, and other subjects. In considering the high school of grades nine to twelve, one finds that there is more or less agreement as to what should constitute the bulk of subject matter for the various curricula. If a pupil wishes to prepare for a scientific course in college, he is advised to complete four units in English, four of higher mathematics, four of science, two of language, and, in addition, physical education and some minor subjects. Such a program would not allow more than four units of the social studies. The time element would be just as stringent for those in vocational courses and probably almost as much so for those in the academic course not majoring in a scientific field. More time might be available for those in the general course. However, in the modern high school provision is made for many of these to take majors in music, art, mechanical drawing, shop, home economics, typing, or other subjects. This means that under the organization found in most of our high schools, those elements of the social studies which should be given to all pupils must be confined to one unit in each of the four years.

While the general practice has been to limit the social studies to one unit a year, many educators believe that this is insufficient if we are to attain the objectives of education. Much thought has been given to the subject. Some have urged that college-entrance requirements be changed so that more time can be given to those subjects which aid in the socialization of the child. Others have argued that there has been too much specialization in all the courses in the high school, especially in the vocational field. As a result, many plans have been devised, especially along the lines of fusion or core subjects, which place more emphasis on the social studies. At the present time the question of the place of the

social studies in the school curriculum is receiving much attention both as to time and as to content.

The Social Studies in the Schools Today

During the early years of the twentieth century, the emphasis in the social studies in the schools was almost entirely on the study of history. This was largely due to the influence of national committees such as the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association whose report was published in 1899. The effect of this report was immediate, and school after school adopted its suggested program. The emphasis on history continued for the first two decades of the twentieth century, when another committee issued a report which began a trend toward the nonhistorical social studies. This was a committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, created by the National Education Association.

Largely as a result of the activity aroused by these and later committees, many changes have occurred in the social-studies curriculum. The study of history in the schools has been carefully scrutinized. Ancient history and English history as separate subjects have been taken out of the curriculum. In the history courses now taught, the trend has been away from the political and military toward the social, economic, and cultural. The emphasis also has been on the more recent aspects of history rather than on the earlier phases. The nonhistorical courses have been gaining more favor. Civics, government, social and economic problems, and international relations are coming in for more attention. Attempts have been made to find out what knowledge pupils need most in a democratic society and to use that information as a basis for building the curriculum. Some have gone further and have introduced the pupils' own personal problems as a concern of the social-studies curriculum.

Although schools may vary in their offerings in the social studies, certain subjects dominate in the various grades. There are many reasons for this, one of which is the state course of study. State courses of study vary, yet they show much similarity. The tendency today is to have one social-studies course in each year for all pupils. If it is not mandatory, it is at least recommended. From a study of many surveys, the usual secondary-school program for the social studies is as follows:

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| Grade Seven. | World Backgrounds of American History. |
| Grade Eight. | American History. |
| Grade Nine. | Civics. |
| Grade Ten. | World History or World Civilization. |
| Grade Eleven. | American History. |
| Grade Twelve. | Problems of Democracy, Economics, or Sociology. |

In many schools geography is taught in the seventh and eighth grades. Naturally, world backgrounds would be studied with world geography. Similarly, American history and American geography are studied in the same year. Some educators have criticized the separation of history and geography. As a result, a few schools have inaugurated fusion courses in these subjects. On the other hand, many teachers of geography believe that the subject is more than a background for history and advocate its retention as a separate subject in the curriculum.

The present discussion has assumed a required course in social studies in each of the grades of the junior and senior high schools. This is not always the practice. In some senior high schools, social studies is a required subject for only one year. Electives are offered during the other years. Most schools, however, have a mandatory course for each of the grades. A few schools, especially those with a large enrollment, have electives in the social studies, in addition to the one required each year. State history is offered in some as an elective, while in others it may be required. In various parts of the country, electives are offered in ancient history, Latin-American history, Canadian history, or a limited period of European history. In the other social studies, sociology or social problems, economics, and government dominate in certain sections of the country. In some schools they are electives; in others they are required in the twelfth year. Commercial or economic geography is offered as a required course in the tenth or the eleventh grade in some schools, instead of history. In others it is an elective. In some schools, in addition to the regular offering, electives in the social studies are offered to general pupils, especially to those of low ability. As already pointed out, current events is usually offered in one or more of the social-studies courses and sometimes is given as a separate subject.

Curriculum Revision

For many years curriculum revision has been gaining momentum. Much of this in the secondary school has been due to the fact that many educators have thought that subject boundaries have been so well set that pupils cannot see the relationships among them or the relationships of two aspects of the same movement treated in different subjects. In recent years, many educators have demanded that less attention should be given to subjects and a greater emphasis placed on material that answers pupil needs. They would evaluate the material, regardless of subject, on the functional value to the pupil. As a result, much work has been done on the curriculum and many experiments have been attempted. Many of the plans evolved have had to do with correlation, fusion, and integration, and today, the plan known as the core curriculum is gaining in importance.

Correlation. Correlation is nothing more than the attempt to tie up the

knowledge that the pupil is studying with the knowledge in a related field. Correlation in the school may be of two types: incidental and subject correlation. In the first, the teacher tries to tie up the topic or the event that the pupil is studying with the related knowledge that he has learned elsewhere. Naturally, the extent of this type of correlation will depend on the teacher. If he understands his pupils and has investigated the courses that they have studied, he may find many means of correlation. Teachers have used this type for motivation. Subject correlation has often been the topic of curriculum revision. Attempts have been made to correlate history and literature. For example, American history is studied at the same time as American literature, and teachers of both subjects confer frequently to prepare the program that will help the pupils to tie up the knowledge of both subjects. Plans have been made to correlate history and geography. Attempts have also been made to correlate art and music courses with the social studies, or at least with phases of the course. Another plan of correlation may be found in the single correlated course in which first a unit of geography is taught, then a related unit of history, and finally a related unit of civics. An extreme plan of correlation is one in which an attempt is made to find relationships among all the subjects in the curriculum. Forcing such relations has often resulted in a loss of attainment in the real objectives of education.

Fusion. A trend that has made some headway in the secondary school and is receiving attention at the present time can be seen in the attempts to break down the dividing lines between subjects and organize the materials on a different basis. The term "fusion" has been used to describe the procedure. A fusion course, then, is one in which subject boundaries are discarded and the materials of instruction are taken from any of the social studies and welded into units, or divisions, of learning. Proponents of the plan claim that, under such a procedure, the selection and arrangement of material can be based on social objectives and not on the traditional content basis.

Fusion courses vary to a considerable extent. The earliest courses attempted to blend the material in two or three subjects. History, geography, and civics were the fields generally chosen for the fusion experiments. Such a procedure was natural, for long before the term "fusion" had been used in education, teachers had talked of the importance of a geographical background for the study of history, and often history and civics were closely related.

The fusion movement gained impetus through the appearance of textbooks for fusion courses in the junior high school. At one time, such textbooks were adopted by many schools. Undoubtedly the fusion movement would not have made much progress had it not been for the work of Dr.

Harold O. Rugg, who prepared a series of such books for the junior high school. The first of the series was published in 1929. The remaining five appeared at various times during the following years. However, in later years the use of the fusion textbook declined. Some of those who experimented with the procedure thought that the wealth of material confused the pupil rather than enlightened him.

Integration. The idea of integration is closely related to correlation and to fusion. To avoid misunderstanding a definition of each should be made. Correlation means the seeking and utilizing of points of contact and relationships among subjects in order to bring about association in the general field of knowledge and, to some degree, among the various parts of the curriculum. Fusion implies the breakdown of subject boundaries and the selection of material from various fields, to achieve the objectives that have been set up. Integration means the creation of units of understanding that consist of integrated materials of instruction from several fields, in order to present a whole picture of a phase of knowledge rather than a part.

Integrated courses based on the preceding definition present many problems. Since they are devised to give a cross section of a period, they are difficult to organize and require teachers who have had a broad training and who possess a wide range of interests. For example, in presenting a unit in Oriental civilization, not only would history, government, and geography be taught, but teachers of the special subjects would teach the art, literature, and music of the period, in order to give a complete picture of the unit. The objectives of such a course, however, make it desirable that the various fields of knowledge should not be taught by several individuals. A single instructor of wide training would be better if the course is to have unity. However, the work may be successfully carried out if the social-studies teacher assumes full charge of the course and directs the work of the other teachers. Integrated courses present many administrative problems.

Core Curriculum. In recent years, a revision in curriculum has emphasized what has become known as the core curriculum. Much confusion has arisen in defining the program. As it is generally practiced, one main course, called the core, occupies two or three periods a day. This course is taken by all pupils of the grade. Specialized courses are added, to round out the school day. The main course, or core, has been variously defined and the content has shown considerable variation.

In what some have termed the "original core," no course of study is previously outlined. The teacher enters the classroom with no preconceived plan except that of a background of experience with other classes. The teacher and the pupils then plan the work cooperatively. The work

to be undertaken arises spontaneously from the needs and interests of a class. It may seem that under such a scheme the work for each class would be different. However, pupils in the various classes have similar needs and interests, even if there are differences.

From the preceding paragraph the young teacher might gather the impression that the original core is the work for a superior, experienced teacher. However, inasmuch as there are common needs and interests, the young teacher can use an outline of the material of these as a point of departure in dealing with a new class. The work of many committees of revision are obtainable, and these indicate in a general way the needs and interests of pupils.

In many of the core programs offered today, the course is nothing more than a correlated or fusion experiment. In some of these, English and the social studies are combined. In others, music and art are added. In one of these programs for the ninth grade, a series of eight units was offered. Four of these were similar to those found in most civic courses for the ninth grade, dealing with the community, the state, the federal government, and world government. The English work consisted of units in reading, oral and written work, grammar, spelling and vocabulary enrichment. The pupils met for two periods a day. The same teacher had full charge of all the work of the course and, therefore, was with the pupils during the two periods. On the other hand, it was evident that the teacher in this particular case was not as well versed in English as he was in the social studies. The title of the course was: "Living in an Ever-widening Community."

Core programs of various kinds have been mostly confined to the junior high school, although some have advocated their use in the senior high school. The demands of the various subjects have made it difficult to introduce any type of core course in the senior high school. College and vocational requirements have also worked against any extensive plans for such courses for all senior-high-school pupils. Many experiments have been tried in recent years in this field, and numerous articles have been written concerning plans that have been proposed or put into operation.

Personal Problems in the Curriculum

In recent years, under the impetus of finding pupil needs, some educators have advocated the introduction of courses that will help pupils solve their own personal problems. They state that if a pupil is to attain a well-rounded personality he must live competently within himself and also live harmoniously with others. The background of this movement is quite similar to that of the original core program described in the preceding division. However, its proponents have confined the course to a single

period meeting five times a week and generally found in the senior high school. Experiments have been conducted in order to find out the problems that face pupils and what the schools should do to help solve them. As a result, classes have been started that discuss such topics as personality development and social competence. Such problems as how to make friends, how to get along with the opposite sex, how to avoid friction at home, and how to obtain and hold a job are considered.

Some schools have started Family Living courses, which use a textbook on the subject but also allow the pupils opportunity for introducing any personal problems. Many of these courses have a unit on sex education. Usually, the course is taught by a social-studies teacher. In some instances, the Family Living course has been substituted for problems of democracy or for world history. However, such a course is closely related to guidance, and the selection of a teacher should take into consideration more than a mastery of social-studies material. To teach such a subject, one must possess traits that enable him to get along with others and must be experienced in social competence. Also, the introduction of such material, whether through a course or through a system of guidance, should be studied in the light of the entire curriculum. The substitution of a course on Family Living in place of world history, on the grounds that it is easier for the pupils and reduces class failures, is a poor way to build a curriculum.

The social-studies curriculum has often been criticized because it has to do with materials that are far removed from the life of the pupils. In addition to the personal problems that are social in nature, some would include material that will aid the pupil more directly in developing his growth as a citizen and as a worker. Of course, such a movement is old, but in recent years it has received much emphasis. In some schools a start has been made by an intensive study of the local community. Then the study is used as a point of departure for attacking the problems that the pupil meets and will meet as a citizen of the community. This would include such topics as voting, community improvement, working in the community, union membership, juvenile delinquency, educational and recreational facilities, and welfare agencies. In other schools the emphasis has been on the material most needed to aid the pupil in preparing for home membership in the community. As a result, such topics as home ownership, social security, various types of insurance, investments, and the practical aspects of consumer education are studied. The foregoing discussion does not imply that all schools have neglected entirely the problems mentioned. In many of our schools, some of the problems have been studied in such courses as general business, consumer education, civics, and problems of democracy. However, quite frequently the work

has been fragmentary, and the knowledge has been imparted to but a portion of the student body.

Opposition to the Formal Study of History in the Curriculum

Recent plans for the reorganization of the social studies insist that the material should be functional and based on pupil need. An understanding of present-day affairs is stressed. It is easily seen how some educators might fail to see the immediate functional value of history courses and minimize their importance in the curriculum. As a result, some plans have been organized that call for no formal study of history in the school. A main topic, or center of interest, is devised for each grade and this finally is divided into a series of units that are based on pupil needs. Inasmuch as the plans cover the six grades of junior and senior high school, the curriculum makers can place the units in the various grades according to their ideas of grade placement.

A few plans have been worked out for organizing the social studies on such a basis. In one of these, which has been put into practice, the work of each grade is built around a "center of interest." For example, the center of interest for the eleventh grade is: "The Effects of a Continuously Planning Social Order upon Our Living." Activities for each center are then based on eleven functions of social life: protection and conservation of life, property and natural resources, production of goods and services and distribution of the returns of production, consumption of goods and services, communication and transportation of goods and people, recreation, expression of aesthetic impulses, education, extension of freedom, integration of the individual, exploration.

In another study, there is a main topic for each three grades, from the first to the twelfth. For example, in the senior high school the topic is: "Individual and Group Relationships in Contemporary Society." In the junior high school it is: "Adaptation of the Individual to the Modern World through Scientific and Social Development." Each topic is then treated under nine "areas of human experience." The areas are: protecting and improving life and health, earning a living, making a home, expressing spiritual and emotional impulses, expressing aesthetic impulses, securing an education, cooperating in social and civic action, adjusting to and improving the material environment, and engaging in recreation. Each of the areas is then subdivided into a number of items, which are to be organized into units. In the area of "earning a living," the following items in the senior-high-school division are suggested:

1. Control over the production and distribution of goods.
2. The government and labor.

3. The economic independence of women.
4. The government and private industry.
5. Stabilization of industry and employment.
6. The social responsibilities of industrial and banking institutions.
7. Economic security—adequate income and continuous employment.
8. Public works and direct government aid.
9. Employer and employee relationships.
10. Price levels and wages in relation to technological development.
11. The quest for wealth in America.
12. Vocational opportunities in our own and other communities.
13. Social progress in relation to technological development.

A simpler plan than the two just presented, but with similarities as to aims and objectives, is the one in which the entire school program for the social studies is divided into a series of units or problems. In this plan, no formal history is taught. If it is necessary to get at the antecedents of any event, they are traced, preferably from the present to the past. The curriculum makers decide what units of knowledge the pupils should master in order to understand the complex world in which they live. The units are then placed in the various grades according to the grade-placement ideas of the curriculum makers.

In recent years, the idea of displacing history courses in the curriculum has received much criticism. The American people insist that their children be familiar with their history. State laws have been passed, at the insistence of the people, to teach not only American history but also state history. Plans to discard history have been frowned upon and, when put into practice, severely criticized. This seems rightly so, for pupils should be made aware of the struggles of their nation to grow and improve. That is part of the teaching of democracy. The same may be said of world history. How can a person today be a good citizen without a knowledge of the other peoples of the world? It is true, however, that the treatment of world history, as of American history, in many schools can be criticized for its emphasis on detail. World history should be treated in a way that pupils may see its large movements that have culminated in the world as it is today. It should be studied so that pupils may learn from the past the need for better world organization and brotherhood. It is true that a pupil should be acquainted with much current material if he is to be an intelligent citizen in a democracy. However, that information need not be obtained at the expense of history. There is a place for both in the curriculum.

An Evaluation of the Social Studies Today

The beginning teacher may get the impression that the social-studies curriculum is in a very confused state today. However, despite all the work done, actual changes in the schools have been gradual, for history still occupies an important place in the curriculum. Most schools teach history in the seventh and eighth grades. Civics is usually offered in the ninth grade. Even in schools using some type of core program, the offering is usually some kind of civics, correlated with other subjects. World history has been replaced in a few schools by other subjects, but still holds its own in most. American history is required in practically all schools. Problems of democracy, or a course of similar type, has received wide acceptance.

The problem before us concerns the best way for attaining the aims of the social studies. A knowledge of both history and current problems is necessary. The social, economic, and political problems will never be solved unless they are backed up by an informed citizenry. Training for better citizenship is an objective in the schools. It is a sad commentary on our schools that so many of our citizens are unaware of the problems that confront the nation, or at least have so superficial a knowledge that they are open to accept ill-advised schemes to solve such problems. If the mass of the citizens were familiar with them, there would undoubtedly be a greater effort really to solve them.

The main purpose of history courses is to provide the background to enable the pupil to understand better the present world in which he lives. The history teacher who closes his course with the end of the First World War has failed to realize the big aim for his subject. Yet in many of the schools, teachers disregard aims and teach history for the sake of the subject, with no thought in mind except that they will stop at whatever period they have reached on the last day of school. The emphasis should be on the recent period of history. An understanding of our complicated international situation demands a knowledge of what has transpired during the last quarter of a century.

The great danger in teaching the nonhistorical social studies is that they may become too theoretical and neglect the functional aspects. There is much material that is interesting, but the teacher must realize that the time of the pupil is limited. So much time could be spent on economic theory that a pupil would have a very meager understanding of the economic problems that confront Americans today. So much time could be spent on theories concerning the family and a historical survey of the family that a pupil would have little knowledge of the disruptive influences in present-day society that tend to lower the stability of family

life. The course in problems of democracy could easily degenerate into a purely theoretical and academic course. A teacher ignorant of world problems, using a text that is eight or nine years old, would be in no position to prepare his pupils to understand intelligently the problems before him today. The labor problem cannot be understood without a knowledge of the big issues that have arisen under the National Labor Relations Act, the Taft-Hartley Act, and other labor laws.

The twelfth-year course in problems seems to be an appropriate climax to the social-studies program. Here the teacher can gather up the loose threads of pupil thinking and tie the pupil's knowledge into a purposeful whole, so that he will be able to evaluate the problems that he must face. The wide-awake teacher will demand much freedom in changing or modifying his procedure to fit the times. He will have the opportunity to bring in the materials of the social studies that he thinks most essential to the pupil's growth. If he has read well, participated in curriculum revision, or observed the practice of others, he can translate what he has learned into class procedure. By such means, he can develop his course so that it approximates the needs of the pupils he teaches. He will be able not only to bring the real problems of life before his pupils but also to work out a program that will enable them to understand this complex world. Such problems as unemployment, taxation, the public attitude toward the various "isms," propaganda in its various forms, and the various problems that Americans face or that may arise in the defense program will become intelligible to them; and as they go forth into the world, they will be better prepared to help in solving these problems.

Controversial Problems in the Classroom

The question of controversial problems in the classroom has caused much discussion. In recent years there has been a more favorable attitude in regard to including such issues in the curriculum. A few people still object to bringing into the school any material of a controversial nature. Some have gone so far as to object to such terms as communism being mentioned in the classroom. In teaching democracy, they would have the teacher follow the method of the propagandist of using slogans emphasizing the superiority of the democratic form of government. In other words, they would have democracy taught by the same methods that the dictator uses in advocating his form of government. Real democracy cannot be taught in such a way. It must be taught by democratic methods—giving each one the right to question, to find out, and to evaluate. Democracy does not need any false supports; it can stand on its own pillars of truth. Democracy comes into its own when its electorate is intelligent and well informed. In our form of government, each citizen

must play his part; but if he is ignorant, he plays a poor part. When the number is large, the way is paved for demagogues and for mass hysteria. Democracy demands an electorate that is able to choose wisely. Herein lies a challenge to the social-studies program.

Bringing controversial material into the classroom demands much care and foresight on the part of the teacher. If pupils must be given a chance to view all sides of a question, the teacher must plan and prepare so that his pupils will really see all aspects. It is for this reason that teachers should be well grounded in the social studies. The idea of some educators that anyone can teach a social problem and learn with the pupils is fallacious. If a teacher is discussing a controversial problem on labor, he certainly should know his subject well in order to present all sides of the question fairly. It is surprising how much misinformation is given in the classroom and how many wrong conclusions are drawn because of the inadequate background of the teacher. In one classroom that the writer visited, the teacher tried to show the class why the United States should have annexed Canada in 1866, as if it were a problem of the British and United States governments alone, with utter disregard of the Canadian government and people. However, even the most learned teachers must guard against becoming propagandists. It is easy to be well versed in a problem and then seek to lead pupils to the conclusion one has in mind. The teacher must assume a neutral position. It is the job of the teacher to bring to light the various phases of information on the problem and then allow the pupil to come to his own conclusion. It is no reflection on a teacher if, after a thorough discussion of socialized medicine, the members of the class differ in their conclusions. It is a reflection on the teacher if the information upon which they have built their conclusions is meager, through either ignorance or deliberate intent.

It is true that in some school districts the study of controversial problems is curtailed. However, when one considers the attitude a generation ago, he must be surprised by the progress that has been made. More and more favor is given to such a study in the political, social, and economical fields. This trend will increase, for today more boys and girls graduate from our high schools who see the value in such procedure. Teachers, however, should be careful in giving all sides of a question, so that criticism can be met. If a pupil has digested all aspects of a question, he himself will be the best recommendation, for he will be able to hold his own when the problem is discussed in the home or on the street. There are a few controversial problems that may not be taken up in the classroom. For example, in the field of religion, it is still not appropriate to study objectively the present-day situation of the various sects in their entirety.

Most communities frown upon such a study, especially when it affects them individually. Also, teachers do not have sufficient knowledge to evaluate objectively the conditions within the various denominations, nor do they have the emotional background to discuss in a detached manner many of the issues involved. However, there are some religious issues that may be discussed if all sides are given. The separation of church and state, for example, may be studied and the attitude of the courts toward weekday religious education.

Most controversial problems can and should be brought up in the classroom. If the teacher does his work well, he will find the fair-minded people of the community with him, especially if he has gained the respect of the community through the years of his teaching.

The Curriculum for Pupils of Low Ability

One of the problems confronting the curriculum maker that has received increased emphasis for many years concerns the pupil of low ability. This has become more acute in recent years because of the insistence on the part of many educators that high-school education should be for all American youth. The number of pupils who drop out during the high-school years is large. Undoubtedly, a greater effort should be made to retain these youths in the high schools as long as they are educable. Many courses have been criticized as being too difficult for most of these pupils and also as not being meaningful to them. Fault has been found with history courses, especially as they have been presented and taught. Whether or not other social-studies material should be substituted for history is questionable. If history is taught, the question of material and method must be faced. Undoubtedly, most of our present-day textbooks are too difficult for such pupils to master. These are the pupils whose reading ability is generally low. Probably much of the storytelling method, with a liberal use of visual aids, is needed. In the consideration of the objectives of the social studies, it is evident that the school has failed to measure up to its full responsibility in giving these pupils an insight into history according to their ability and an understanding of social and economic problems.

It is true that, under our present organization in the schools, the pupil of low ability does much better in the nonhistorical social studies than he does in history. There are many reasons for this. In the first place, the teacher is dealing generally with present-day material and the pupil usually knows something about it. Then again, quite frequently what is written on the subject is more understandable. Pamphlets are often available on a topic which present the matter in a much easier style than does the average history textbook. Of course, even these courses may

become so theoretical as to present the same problems as found in history. However, it is possible for the wide-awake teacher to introduce problems or topics that will touch the present knowledge of the pupil of low ability and challenge his thinking. The teacher may bring to the class a problem whereby pupils of different capabilities may all profit, each according to his ability. Naturally, the brighter ones may get a deeper understanding from the study, but even those who find studying difficult may attain a degree of mastery commensurate to their ability. In regard to the reading, the teacher may obtain material from many sources to meet the differing needs of pupils. Of course, there will be some whose reading ability is extremely low and for whom little can be done in raising it. Even these may profit much by an animated pupil discussion and by the use of the storytelling method.

Revision Committees

More attention is given to the curriculum at the present time than ever before. School systems have committees working on revision for their particular schools. Even in a single school the problem of the curriculum has quite frequently become the subject of faculty meetings. Often curriculum revision goes beyond the school district, to involve a larger area such as the county. In some sections the movement has attained state-wide proportions, with state committees functioning and individual schools making their contributions or aiding by experimentation. Indeed, colleges and associations have held workshops with committees working on various phases of the problem.

Teachers may be overawed by the amount of effort expended on the subject and may believe that they are out of step with the modern trend unless many changes are taking place in their own schools. However, it is well to remember that permanent changes come slowly, despite the vast amount of experimentation that goes on. What permanent results ensue will be for the future to decide. The teacher should welcome the opportunity to work on committees and should keep up with the literature on the subject. The beginning teacher, especially, should not be led astray by the leader who takes an extreme position. On the other hand, he should not fall into a rut and fail to see better ways of educating his pupils.

Many of the committees working on revision have advocated pupil cooperation in establishing the new curriculum. They also welcome suggestions from lay citizens of the community. It is an excellent idea to find out the viewpoints of those outside the school and of the pupils within. However, care must be exercised, for lay people may see the problem from their own narrow points of view rather than from those of the

broad aims of education. In the final analysis, the educator is the expert in the field, receiving suggestions, experimenting, and evaluating.

Of all the subjects in the curriculum, the social studies have received more attention in the revision movement than any other subject. This is natural when the aims and objectives are considered. Most of the emphasis has been on civic training. The schools have been criticized quite severely in recent years because of the conduct of many of the youth of school age. The problem has been linked with juvenile delinquency and crime. Even when the censure does not go that far, many have complained of the poor civic behavior of many of our youth in their community relations. These problems are of much concern to the school. However, the teacher must remember that attitudes and ideals go beyond the curriculum. Perfect knowledge does not insure good behavior. This does not mean that the teacher should not seek for the knowledge that will aid him in securing the higher aims. It does indicate that the curriculum is only one means in our program of aiding pupils to become fine American citizens.

Summary

What should be taught constitutes one of the most important questions in the social studies. It has gained in importance in recent years because of the increasing emphasis on the social studies in the curriculum and also because of the lack of agreement among educators as to what to teach. The problem must be recognized as part of the movement toward revision of the entire school program. One aspect of the problem in the social studies concerns the relative importance of history, on the one hand, and the nonhistorical social studies on the other. The trend has been toward the nonhistorical social studies. In the field of history, certain trends are evident. Ancient history and English history as separate subjects have almost passed from the curriculum; American history is entrenched, and world history is gaining in favor. In all history courses there has been less emphasis on the political and military and more on the social and economic phases. For many years, there has been a trend toward fusion, correlation, integration, and the core curriculum. However, many of the core-curriculum courses have been fusion or correlation courses. The emphasis today is on subject matter which is practical and which meets pupil needs. Some educators have suggested that a course in the personal problems of the pupil be introduced into the curriculum. However, the introduction of such a course should be studied in the light of the entire school program. Indeed, the whole social-studies program must be studied not only in the light of its objectives but also from the point of view of the entire school. In view of these ob-

jectives, a program of both history and the nonhistorical studies is needed. The work must be functional and answer the needs of pupils. The trends and problems of the day must be understood. Pupils must form their own opinions on controversial issues as good citizens. The teacher should not indoctrinate but should see that pupils understand all sides of pertinent questions. Pupils of low ability should be given material in such a way that they can assimilate it, so that they may develop into good citizens. The teacher should be alert to what is being done in the field of curriculum revision.

Questions

1. Why is the problem of curriculum revision increasing in importance?
2. Get copies of courses of study from a number of high schools and compare the offerings in the social studies.
3. What are the arguments for and against history as a separate subject in the curriculum?
4. What would be your criticisms of the usual program in the social studies today?
5. Look at a number of core programs and see which tend toward fusion, correlation, or integration and which are original core programs as defined in this chapter.
6. How do you account for the core program's making but little headway in the senior high school?
7. How should a course in personal problems be taught?
8. What are the most important problems that should be taught in a course in problems of democracy?
9. Compare a history textbook of the early part of the century with one of today in regard to their emphasis on the military, political, social, economic, and cultural aspects.
10. Of what value is it for a teacher to participate in community activities?
11. Why should controversial problems be introduced into the classroom?
12. What would be your program for the pupil of low ability?
13. What should be the attitude of the teacher toward curriculum revision?
14. Obtain a recent committee revision in the social studies. What changes does it advocate?

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CHAPTER XI

THE TEACHER OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The Importance of the Teacher of the Social Studies

One of the outstanding phases of modern American life has been the rapid growth in the field of education. The American people of this generation show an unswerving faith in the need and efficiency of education. As a result of this belief, we see on every hand fine school buildings with elaborate equipment. Money has been spent lavishly in many ways. Old school buildings have been discarded. The curriculum has been enriched. Extracurricular activities have been provided. Quite often, however, the most important means of education is neglected. This is the teaching staff. It is safe to say that a good teaching staff with poor equipment will accomplish infinitely more than a poor one with much material aid. In other words, the key to the success or failure of the whole project of education is the teacher himself. The teacher is the soul of the school. Much neglect has been shown in not providing adequate teaching staffs in our high schools. Salaries have been so meager that the superior have not been attracted. Standards have been so low that the inferior have been able to qualify for teaching positions. As a result, many of our high schools are turning out fine football teams but poor future citizens.

Of all the subjects in the curriculum, the social studies have suffered most from poor teaching. When history first crept into the curriculum of the schools, it was generally held that anyone could teach the subject. All that was necessary was a textbook and the ability to read it. The teacher's task was merely to see that the pupils knew the facts presented in the book. This attitude toward the teaching of history is still prevalent today. A history class is frequently given to the English teacher, in order that it may round out his schedule; or worse still, it is turned over to the teacher of mathematics. In one of our larger towns, the school superintendent recently wanted a good football coach for the high school. He wanted one who was certified to teach history. The sad part about it was that he was unconcerned as to what kind of history the coach could teach or whether or not he was efficient in the teaching of history at all. What he did want was a good coach; and to fit in with the schedule of the school, he wanted one who had met the state requirements to teach history. When one considers the aims and objectives of education and the

part that the social studies should play in accomplishing those aims, he wonders why the teaching of the social studies has been thus dealt with in so many of our schools.

If the social studies are to aid pupils to understand this complex world in which we live, in order that they may better adapt themselves to it and prepare themselves for an intelligent citizenship, does this not require a well-trained and a superior type of teacher? Do not the social studies, more than any other subject, demand well-prepared, conscientious men and women of sound knowledge and training, whose personalities rank high among men? The teacher of the social studies deals with attitudes, ideals, and appreciations to a larger extent than is the case in other branches of study. The study of algebra, the appreciation of a poem, the knowledge of the natural world, important as they may be, cannot be compared with the teaching of pupils to live together in a democracy and with raising the tone of that democracy by developing an intelligent electorate.

The Motive for Entering the Teaching Profession

Keeping in mind the importance of the teacher of the social studies, one is faced with a fundamental problem before even considering teaching the social studies. This concerns the motive that prompts one to enter the profession. Why do we wish to teach anyway? The answer to this question is a determining factor in the success or failure of teaching. For successful teaching, the keynote of the answer to this question should be *service*. There must be the desire to aid in the molding of human material. The teacher must not be so much concerned with what he gets as with what he gives. Yet in actual practice, the motives under which many enter the teaching profession are in contradiction to this. Some have used it as a steppingstone to the other professions—law, medicine, the ministry. Others have entered it under the delusion that teachers work short hours and have a long summer vacation. With such motives, teaching falls far short of the ideal, for it is only when one conceives his task in terms of self-sacrificing service that the objectives of education can be attained.

The teaching profession offers little material inducement to the person seeking to enter. While conditions have been improving for many years, the salaries are still low in comparison with those of other vocations. Only a small number obtain financial remuneration in keeping with the importance of their work and their preparation for it. If the work were easy and the hours short, there might be some justification for the poor material reward. But contrary to the public view, the work of the teacher is hard and the hours are long. After the class periods are over, the teacher

finds himself confronted with many tasks. Pupil conferences, routine work, and extracurricular activities keep him busy at the close of the school day. In the evening, he has to plan for the next day and probably go over pupils' work. The rewards of teaching, then, are found in a higher sphere. In a sense, teaching is social service. It appeals to the high ideals of service and sacrifice. A great share of the reward in teaching comes from the satisfaction in the work of developing boys and girls. The greatest joy of the teacher is found in the success of his pupils.

Scholarship and Teaching

It cannot be overemphasized that to become a successful secondary-school teacher scholarship is not only desirable but essential. This does not mean that scholarship is the most important factor. It may be said that there are three essentials necessary for success. Many other factors enter in, but these three are basic. In addition to scholarship, professional training and personality are necessary. Much dispute has arisen over the relative importance of each of these. Some have emphasized sound knowledge, others have stressed proficiency in methods, while many have thought personality plays the most important role in successful teaching. Regardless of which is most essential, scholarship is a requirement. For the teacher, this means two things—a sound knowledge of the subject or subjects he teaches and a general, liberal education. His knowledge must be broader than the subject matter that he teaches. This is especially true of the social studies, with its vast amount of material. The teacher of these subjects requires a broad cultural and factual background.

In recent years, there has been a definite trend toward minimizing scholarship. Administrators have become mentally entangled with the slogan: "We are teaching pupils, not subject matter." The tendency has been to disparage the scholarship of the teacher. All will agree that we are teaching pupils, but the question still remains, "How are we teaching them, or with what are we teaching them?" In order to obtain the desirable changes in pupils, we must be well grounded in the materials that will aid to produce those changes. It would be foolish for a teacher to attempt to lead his pupils to an understanding of the labor problem if he did not himself have a thorough knowledge of the movement. It would not help in any way to inform the instructor that he was teaching pupils and not subject matter.

If conditions in the teaching profession were ideal, the problem of training the high-school teacher would be greatly simplified. His college would aim to give him a sound knowledge of the subject that he is to teach, a liberal education, and an adequate professional training. Conditions, however, are far from the ideal in actual practice. Many teachers who

have prepared to teach the social studies find that they must teach, at least in the beginning of their careers, one or more other subjects besides. Indeed, many who leave our teachers' colleges equipped to teach the social studies find that, for their first year or two, they must teach an entirely different subject.

The prospective teacher is, therefore, at the outset face to face with a problem. Even if his heart and soul are in teaching the social studies, he must also prepare to teach one or more other subjects. This is a glaring illustration of the inconsistencies of the whole educational program. We spend millions for new buildings and equipment, yet are apparently unconcerned as to whether or not teachers are well grounded in the subjects that they teach. In this matter, the teacher is face to face with actual practice and not with theory. Under present conditions, the teacher must be prepared to teach two or more subjects. He must ask himself what subject or subjects he will teach besides the social studies. Many considerations enter into the answering of this question. In the first place, there is the question concerning which combinations of subjects have the most in common and which would mutually aid one another in their study. On the other hand, there is the question concerning which combination would be more likely to secure a position for the teacher. It is evident that English forms a very desirable combination with the social studies. The study of literature often throws a new light on historical movements. From the point of view of securing a position, however, such a combination is often far from ideal. Generally, there are more opportunities in mathematics or science than in English.

In the foregoing discussion, we have taken the social studies as a unit. It must be considered that they comprise several subjects. Yet, it is true, no teacher of any of the social studies is properly trained until he has been well grounded in history, because history provides a background for them all. The conception of the teacher of history alone in the secondary school is rapidly passing away, and the teacher of the social studies is taking his place. Preparation must therefore be made to teach civics, economics, political science, sociology, and problems of democracy, as well as history.

The requirements for teaching in our high schools have been gradually rising during the past few years. At the present time, the usual requirement is college graduation. The content of the teacher-training college course varies in the different colleges but is largely determined by the legal requirements of the state in which the college is situated. Usually, from eighteen to twenty-five semester hours are required in professional subjects. Colleges require that students take one major subject and one or more minor subjects. The major is generally the subject that the prospec-

tive teacher is planning to teach; the minors are those which he is prepared to teach in case of necessity. If his major is history, he takes about twenty-four semester hours in the subject and about nine to eighteen hours in such allied subjects as political science, economics, and sociology. If the emphasis is on the social studies as a whole, additional hours of the allied subjects are taken and less of history. The number of minors that the student will take depends on the state requirements. If the state requires eighteen semester hours in order to teach a subject, the college will usually require the same number for a minor. Probably one minor is all the student can take. If the state requirement is only twelve semester hours, he will probably have two minors. The remainder of the college course will be in the nature of general education.

In the training of a teacher for the social studies, the nature of the academic courses that he takes is more significant than the number of them that he completes. A number of colleges err in this regard. It is possible, in many of our teacher-training institutions, to complete the required number of hours in history and yet be very inadequately prepared to teach the subject in high school. For example, the student teacher may spend most of his time in such highly specialized courses as "The French Revolution," "The American Revolution," and "The Federalist Period." The schedule is, therefore, so apportioned that he has no time for general or survey courses. This is a great mistake, for it does not permit him to get a broad view of history, nor does it put him in touch with the type of material that he will require in his teaching.

There is a great need for our colleges to plan their courses with a view to preparing the prospective teacher to teach the subject matter of his respective fields. Two or probably three survey courses should be given. A survey course in American history, a general course in European history, and probably one in ancient history or in world history are highly desirable. Such courses should be so organized as to help the student when he begins to teach. This does not mean that highly specialized courses are not essential. These are necessary to give the teacher some training in the use of sources and an insight into the scientific method in history. However, the emphasis should be on the survey courses. General courses in the other social studies are essential to the training of the teacher.

One of the chief criticisms of secondary schools today is that the pupils know little about contemporary problems, in spite of courses designed for that purpose. It may reasonably be asked if teacher-training institutions prepare teachers for this task. Many of the introductory college courses in economics and sociology are largely theoretical. Political science often emphasizes organization. The beginning teacher goes forth with little basic knowledge of the present complex world that he is to

help his pupils understand. It seems that a college course or courses on a subject like problems of democracy, on a college level, for prospective teachers is a real need in most teacher-preparatory institutions.

In considering the extensive training required of a high-school teacher, the question arises concerning the length of that training. It has been previously stated that a four-year college course is the usual requirement for teaching in the high schools. Today the amount of training necessary for entrance into the teaching profession compares unfavorably with that required in other professions. However, it is not a question of comparison of training in other occupations. The concern of the question is as to whether or not the four-year college work is sufficient training for the teacher. Many educators have answered this negatively. When we consider the professional training, the specialization, and the liberal education that are required, the four-year term in college is rather short. Many have advocated that one year of graduate work in a recognized college or university be required for high-school teaching. A better plan, however, is the one that reorganizes the work on a five-year basis. The first four years of this period is given over chiefly to college work with its specialization, and the fifth is devoted largely but not entirely to the teaching technique, including practice teaching. This five-year plan has much merit and is worthy of consideration.¹

Professional Training

The second essential mentioned as requisite to successful teaching is professional training. How much of this a student should have in preparing and equipping himself to teach is a moot question. On the one hand, some would give it little place in the curriculum; on the other hand, many would give it a place out of all proportion to the subject matter. In a four-year course, probably one-sixth of the time could be profitably given to this phase. If the course of study is lengthened to five years, it would not be too much to have the last year devoted largely to professional training. However, the question of the amount of time devoted to this is not nearly so important as the kind of training given. It is probably true that an evaluation of the courses in education might be profitably undertaken in many of our institutions.

Undoubtedly, if one were to ask the average teacher for his greatest criticism of his college training, he would mention his courses in education. Quite frequently we hear such criticisms as the following: "If you take one course, you have taken them all"; "It was the same old stuff in all the courses"; "We were given a lot of theory that could not be put into

¹ A five-year plan is in operation at the School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, and at a number of other teacher-training colleges.

practice." Many reasons might be given for such a condition. Often the college teacher has had little experience in the secondary-school field. Frequently, he has been away from it too long to be an authority from a practical standpoint. Sometimes a theory that he advances might be practical, but it is beyond the comprehension of his students and needs to be demonstrated in a laboratory school. All this points to the need of a more practical training of prospective teachers.

Professional courses vary in their value. This is generally on account of the nature and the content of the subjects. Occasionally it is due to the methods of teaching such courses. Many a course that, at the outset, has seemed to offer great values for the student has proved almost valueless on account of inefficient teaching. From the point of view of the nature and content of the courses, there is more or less agreement as to which are worth while. From an examination of the literature on the topic, teachers regard the following three subjects, ranked in the order named, as the most helpful to them after beginning their teaching careers:

1. Practice teaching
2. The observation of teaching
3. Courses in methods (general and special)

The potential values in these courses are suggested by their names. It is evident that actual teaching by the student under competent critics is of the highest educational value. It is learning by doing. Likewise, the observation of successful teachers, and of mediocre teachers as well, is productive of great value to the beginner. Prospective teachers should have the opportunity of observing the various methods of teaching in order to evaluate them from a practical viewpoint and not from the theoretical aspect alone. Many teachers resort to one method and one general form of procedure, for the simple reason that they have never seen any others in operation. It is one thing to read about a different method; it is quite another thing to see that method in actual practice. For this reason, courses in methods are more significant when taken in conjunction with the observation and practice of teaching.

Among the other courses listed under the professional subjects the following might be mentioned:

1. Introduction to education
2. History of education
3. The organization of the high school
4. Public education in the United States
5. Principles of secondary education

6. Educational psychology
7. Educational sociology
8. Educational hygiene
9. Educational measurements
10. Philosophy of education
11. Problems of the beginning teacher

These courses possess different degrees of value for the teacher. Some of them prove of little service and could better be omitted for more worthwhile subjects. Quite often, however, the title does not reveal the entire nature of the content of the course and much value may be obtained from it, despite the name. Some of these courses will prove of more worth to prospective teachers of one subject than of another. For example, the history of education might be of great value to the teacher of history and yet be of little utilitarian value to the teacher of mathematics or science. One great complaint that many students make of professional courses is the definite overlapping so often found. There is an urgent need of evaluating these courses, of rejecting those which have proved of little service or value to prospective teachers, of adding others that will be of service, and of organizing the whole, to prevent overlapping. This has been done in some teacher-training institutions, but much more remains to be done.

The discussion so far has centered in the formal training of the teacher during his college years. This is only one phase of the teacher's preparation for service. The training that he obtains after he begins his teaching career is just as significant as that of his college days. Teaching is a progressive occupation, and the teacher must ever be a student. Although this is true for all teachers, it is especially true for the one who teaches the social studies. It is he who interprets this present, ever-changing, complex world to the pupil. To do this, however, the teacher must understand the present, with its multitudinous perplexing problems. In college, this phase of study is often largely neglected, because the student's time is taken up with the mastery of subject matter, although it should not be so. It cannot be neglected in service if the teacher wants to be a successful teacher of the social studies. He must be a student of the daily newspaper. He must follow the drift of events in weekly journals like *Newsweek*, *Time*, *The New Republic*, and others. Such monthly magazines as *Harper's Magazine* and *Current History* must be read.

Many other tasks have to be taken up after college days are over. The novice, after he begins to teach, will find numerous weaknesses in his preparation. These must be overcome by further study. The more experienced teacher will wish to prepare for greater service or to follow special

interests. Then again, educational thought is not static; it is ever progressive. The teacher trained twenty years ago is lost today if he has not kept up with the times. In history, especially, we have witnessed a decided shift of emphasis during the past two decades. It will require diligent study and careful planning on the part of the teacher to keep up with the changes.

There are various ways whereby a teacher can train himself when in service. Only the most important will be listed here:

1. Reading
2. Afternoon and evening college courses
3. Summer-school courses
4. Institutes
5. Workshops
6. Travel

Reading is a means of self-improvement that all teachers can use. In reading in his subject field, the teacher will be guided by both his needs and his tastes. He must become familiar with the best books and magazines in his field. A professional magazine of high caliber which gives the best thought in the teaching of the social studies is *The Social Studies*, formerly *The Historical Outlook* (McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia). *Social Education*, the publication of the National Council for the Social Studies, is also an excellent magazine for social-studies teachers.

Many professional periodicals of a general nature will prove helpful to the teacher. Among the best of these are the following:

The Clearing House. New York University, New York.

Education. The Palmer Company, Boston.

Educational Leadership. The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Educational Outlook. School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Educational Record. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

The High School Journal. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N.C.

Journal of Education. New England Publishing Company, Boston.

Journal of the National Education Association. Washington, D.C.

The Nation's Schools. The Modern Hospital Publishing Company, Chicago.

Progressive Education. American Education Fellowship, Champaign, Ill.

School and Society. The Society for the Advancement of Education, New York.

The School Review. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Teachers College Record. Columbia University, New York.

The number of professional books on the teaching of the social studies is very limited. A list will be found on page 333. The number of professional books of a general nature is large. A selected list on the general technique of teaching is given on pages 333-335.

College courses for teachers offer an excellent opportunity for training when in service. Most of the larger colleges and universities situated in cities offer afternoon and evening courses during the school year. Teachers who have such opportunities should take advantage of them. The greatest barrier to this is lack of time. The teacher's load in most secondary schools is exceptionally heavy. However, by a careful scheduling of his activities, the teacher may find that some things can be curtailed or omitted for the more important task of self-improvement. The summer school offers a good opportunity to the teacher. It is a great mistake for him to think of a summer period as one long vacation, or solely as a means of adding to his income. Rather, it offers the greatest opportunity for further training.

Institutes and conventions may be of great worth for the improvement of the teacher. In some sections, the teachers of a county meet for a period of one to five days each year. In a large school district, all may occasionally meet. Some of the institutes that are held are of little value because they are poorly organized and consist of a series of addresses that are almost entirely theoretical. Many institutes are worth while. Inspiring talks are given, and sectional meetings are held where teachers can discuss procedures and what is done in the classroom.

A recent development in the in-service training of teachers is the workshop. Colleges and educational associations have done much in organizing this aid to education. The workshop generally consists of a group of teachers and educators who have come together to study one or more problems of educational interest. In one of these workshops, now in operation, the teachers decide during the school year what problems they wish to study. At the close of the year, four of the problems that are agreed upon are made the basis for study. The workshop is organized to meet for several days after the end of the school term. Four groups are formed, each with its own chairman and each with its own problem. At the close of the session, each member has studied one problem intensely with his group and, through conferences, has learned much about the other three. There is much educational advantage in the plan, as the prob-

lems chosen are the more pressing ones, and men and women actually engaged in teaching are helping to solve them. If the workshop is connected with a college or a university, all the advantages from such an association are available. The library is at the disposal of the group and consultants may be available. The workshop may last from a few days to several weeks. Teachers should avail themselves of this means of improving their work.

Travel is always a great educator. Many of the colleges have organized summer field courses, where travel and formal education are combined to advantage. This is especially true of the subject of geography. Probably there will be considerable development along this line in the future. The teacher, however, can organize his own trip during which he can combine pleasure and education. Not only may he be able to visit points of historic interest, but he may gather first-hand information on some of the government projects in our country, and on the economic conditions of groups such as the share-cropper, the miner, and the steelworker. Certainly such knowledge on the part of the teacher will vitalize his teaching.

The Personality of the Teacher

The third essential for successful teaching mentioned in the early part of this chapter is personality. This is perhaps the most significant factor in teaching. More depends upon this essential than upon any other. There has been much discussion about the elements that make up personality. No attempt will be made to enter into such a discussion in this chapter. What we are interested in are those traits and characteristics the possession of which means success for the teacher.

To what extent one can modify his natural traits is a debatable question. We have all been born with native endowments that differ to a greater or lesser extent. It must be borne in mind, however, that the traits we possess today are, in a measure, the result of a process of development which is still going on. Our native equipment has undergone much modification and change since the day that we were born. On the other hand, it must also be kept in mind that a young person may have so ingrained into his being certain negative traits that, even before he begins to teach, he is destined to failure. If a young man or a young woman stands at the threshold of the teaching profession and has no broad love for children, there is little hope for his or her success in this field.

It would be impossible to list and analyze all the qualities that enter into the make-up of a personality. Even if it were possible to list them, it would be exceedingly hard to evaluate them all at the same time. Some would be general and others specific. Many would naturally either include or imply some of the others. So far as the teacher is concerned, it is exceed-

ingly worth while to consider some of the outstanding traits and virtues that determine, in large measure, his success or failure in the teaching profession. These elements naturally fall into three major divisions: (1) physical aspects—those aspects which give us our first impressions of individuals; (2) passive virtues—those virtues which attract us to those who possess them; (3) executive abilities—those abilities which are possessed by leaders and without which leadership is impossible.

Physical Aspects. The physical aspects of personality are overlooked by many teachers, yet they are of utmost importance to the individual, not only because of the impression that they create, but also because of the respect or lack of respect that they engender in those with whom the person who has them may come in contact. Among the most important of these aspects we list:

1. Personal appearance. This includes dress, carriage, facial expression, mannerisms, and personal cleanliness. These items impress people and largely determine their attitude toward one. The teacher must take care to dress neatly, to carry himself well, and to care well for teeth, hair, and nails. These are evidences of gentility.

2. Recognition of the amenities of life. This includes good manners, observance of social forms, courtesy, and refinement. These are attributes of good breeding and marks of superiority.

3. Voice. Some people are born with rich, mellow voices. Others are not so endowed. One thing is certain, however, a poor voice can be greatly improved if given attention. If one has a shrill, monotonous voice, it is his duty to try to correct it as far as possible. This is important because of its effect on children and its relation to successful teaching.

4. Good English. This includes pronunciation, enunciation, and grammar. There are many reasons for mentioning this item. It is a mark of the educated man. It is also an example for the pupils, and the lack of it tends to bring about disrespect.

5. Health. This item affects many of the aspects and traits of a teacher. It often causes him to grow careless. It is even likely to show in his voice. Good health is conducive to a cheerful disposition and to an intelligent optimism. Many troubles in the classroom can be traced directly to the poor physical condition of the teacher.

Passive Virtues. The passive virtues include those qualities which make a teacher a power in the lives of his pupils. The possessor of these is remembered long after most of what he taught has been forgotten. It is he whose inspiring influence goes on long after school days are over. The most important in this list are:

1. Friendliness. This implies having good will toward one's pupils and a deep interest in their welfare. It is the very antithesis of the taskmaster spirit.

2. Sympathy and understanding. This means that one must enter into the feelings of the pupils and must appreciate their problems and difficulties. It implies the ability to think and feel as the pupils do.

3. Sincerity. This entails moral earnestness in the task of the teacher. It means the dedication of one's life to his work. It is being exactly what one appears to be and is the exact opposite of hypocrisy.

4. Tact. This is nothing more than doing the right thing at the right time under the most trying circumstances. Children and young people are sensitive beings and must be handled in a skillful manner.

5. Fairness. The teacher must play the game fairly with each pupil. He cannot afford to harbor grudges against certain ones or show favoritism to others. Children are quick to detect anything of this character.

6. Self-control. This means keeping a level head under all circumstances. The person who can remain cool under the most trying conditions wins the day.

7. Optimism. This requires a belief in the goodness of humanity. Children are full of latent idealism and this must not be quenched by the chronic complainer. There is no place for the pessimist in the training of children.

8. Enthusiasm. Genuine enthusiasm is contagious. The teacher must be enthusiastic about life, about people, and about his subject.

9. Patience. Teaching is a trying profession and calls for endurance and perseverance. It requires a forbearance toward the weaknesses and faults of others.

Executive Abilities. Executive abilities have been defined as those found in leaders. They are absolutely essential in a teacher, who is a leader of the first order. The most important of these abilities are:

1. Self-confidence and self-reliance. The teacher must have faith in himself and in his ability to carry out those aims of education which he has set for himself.

2. Initiative. This means the ability for independent action. The teacher is primarily a leader and not a follower.

3. Adaptability and resourcefulness. The real leader is he who can adapt his plans to actual circumstances and who has the ability to meet the most trying experiences.

4. Organizing ability. Many people have the initiative to plan but can

never put their plans into workable form, because they lack the ability to organize.

5. Directive ability. Many are able to plan and organize in a theoretical way but fail because they lack the ability to direct their plans in actual practice. They are lost when face to face with the human factor of life.

6. Industry. Leaders are always hard workers. They have large aims in life and work diligently to accomplish those aims.

Teacher-rating Sheets

Many attempts have been made to list the qualities necessary for effective teaching. Most of these have been based on studies of the causes of the failure or success of teachers. The educational literature of the past few decades contains many lists. One of these was compiled by Cubberly, a number of years ago.² This rating sheet contains seven divisions: sound knowledge, professional preparation, health equipment, personal qualities, life experiences, social understanding, and educational philosophy. Fifty-four qualities are mentioned under these seven heads, but some of these are subdivided so that there are, in reality, sixty-eight items.

The great fault with many rating sheets is that the items are too general in nature or too vague in meaning. The list found on pages 206–207 can be applied to the social-studies teacher at work in the classroom. Most of the items shown are based on the meanings given them in this chapter.

With such a sheet as this in hand, the teacher can go down the list, checking each item with his own estimate of himself. Better still, if he is not oversensitive, he can check it with the aid of another teacher or of someone else who is in a position to judge his work. Either plan will bring to the attention of the teacher the qualities and abilities that he should possess, and it should at least stimulate thinking and provoke thought about the requisites for successful teaching.

One of the evils that has been associated with a sheet of this sort is that it has often been turned into a score sheet. Many people in the educational field still like to see all data and results in terms of percentages and figures. For instance, in the accompanying rating sheet, a perfect score would be 100. Each item would then count a number of points. The teacher, after checking the list, would count up his points. Such a procedure is faulty in many ways. It is obvious that some of the items are more important than others. Many of them overlap. It is impossible to assign a specific score for each. It must be recognized also that this procedure is highly subjective.

The chief value in such a list as the one suggested below, together with the procedure of rating, is that the teacher may see more specifically his

² E. P. CUBBERLY, *An Introduction to Education* (Boston, 1925), pp. 163–164.

faults. Some teachers do not improve for the simple reason that their specific failings have not been brought to their attention. With a rating sheet in hand, however, the teacher can see just wherein he falls short and can therefore make provision for correction. The rating sheet, then, may be made a great aid in the improvement of teachers and teaching if it is used in a sane and reasonable manner.

CLASSROOM RATING SHEET FOR SOCIAL-STUDIES TEACHERS

| Items | Excel- lent | Good | Aver- age | Poor |
|---|----------------|------|--------------|------|
| I. Scholarship | | | | |
| 1. Sound knowledge of subject taught | | | | |
| 2. Background of a liberal education | | | | |
| 3. Acquaintance with problems of present-day life | | | | |
| 4. Reader of newspaper and magazines | | | | |
| 5. Reader of books on subject taught | | | | |
| II. Professional background | | | | |
| 1. Professional attitude | | | | |
| 2. Sound professional training | | | | |
| 3. Reader of educational magazines | | | | |
| 4. Reader of professional books | | | | |
| 5. Desire for improvement | | | | |
| III. Personality | | | | |
| 1. Physical aspects | | | | |
| a. Personal appearance | | | | |
| b. Recognition of the amenities of life | | | | |
| c. Quality of voice | | | | |
| d. Good English | | | | |
| e. Good health | | | | |
| 2. Passive virtues | | | | |
| a. Friendliness | | | | |
| b. Sympathy and understanding | | | | |
| c. Sincerity | | | | |
| d. Tact | | | | |
| e. Fairness | | | | |
| f. Self-control | | | | |
| g. Optimism | | | | |
| h. Enthusiasm | | | | |
| i. Patience | | | | |
| 3. Executive abilities | | | | |
| a. Self-confidence and self-reliance | | | | |
| b. Initiative | | | | |
| c. Adaptability and resourcefulness | | | | |
| d. Organizing ability | | | | |
| e. Directive ability | | | | |
| f. Industry | | | | |

| Items | Excel- lent | Good | Aver- age | Poor |
|---|----------------|------|--------------|------|
| IV. Classroom Procedure | | | | |
| 1. Clear-cut aims for lesson | | | | |
| 2. Aim of lesson is in relation with aim of topic of course | | | | |
| 3. Materials of subject well selected for teaching | | | | |
| 4. Materials of subject well organized for teaching | | | | |
| 5. Pupils well motivated for study | | | | |
| 6. Carefully planned assignment | | | | |
| 7. Variety of methods used to accomplish aims | | | | |
| 8. Skillful questioning | | | | |
| 9. Ability to "hold" the class | | | | |
| 10. Recognition of individual differences | | | | |
| 11. Efficiency in routine work | | | | |
| 12. Ability to accomplish aims in class | | | | |
| 13. Ability in clear presentation of subject | | | | |

Teacher-and-Pupil Relations

The good teacher is vitally interested in the development of his pupils. To further this desirable end, he should plan continually for the welfare of the boys and girls under his care and should welcome every opportunity to guide and counsel them. To become a power in their lives requires cordial teacher-pupil relationships. The teacher, therefore, ought to welcome every means that may cultivate pupil good will and friendship. This cannot be done in any formal manner. The clock watcher who is looking for the earliest moment to lay down his school tasks and head for home loses many golden opportunities to understand and know his pupils. Many pupils like to remain after school and "just talk" with a sympathetic teacher. Much of the talk may seem trivial, but it does create a bond of friendship. Also, much of what seems petty to adults may be very important to the pupil. Social-studies teachers are often called upon to take charge of a club or some other extracurricular activity. A history club, a current-events club, or a debating team is often given over to the history teacher to sponsor. One of the values in such activities is the better relationships that they engender. The teacher should also make it a point to attend pupil functions whenever possible. Many disciplinary problems and much of the lack of cooperation would disappear if teachers would do more to understand and know their pupils.

The hardest place to have good teacher-pupil relations is in the classroom. Even teachers who have tried to work their way into the lives of the pupils through the means mentioned in the preceding paragraph some-

times find it difficult to carry the relationship into the classroom. Discipline is the biggest problem that faces the new teacher. Some beginners handle the problem in such a way that success is assured from the start; others continually create situations that tend toward a disorderly classroom. Discipline rests largely on the teacher himself—his personality, tact, patience, and resourcefulness. After a behavior question has arisen, the teacher should ask himself why it arose and whether he handled it in the best possible way. Many class periods result in disorder because of lack of planning and failure in anticipating the needs of the group. Discipline problems are few when pupil interest is high and when the class is busy at work.

Occasionally, discipline problems arise which the teacher must meet. Quite frequently, a word from the teacher if it is said in the right way is sufficient. For example, he might say: "I am sorry, William, but I do not think this is the place for what you are doing" or "It seems, Mary, that we have more important things to do now." Often the teacher can make the recalcitrant pupil feel that he is out of step with the class. Pupils like to have the approbation of their classmates, and when a pupil is not getting it, because of his outlandish behavior, he soon stops. If the teacher can secure the confidence of the class, so that the problem pupil feels alone in his conduct, he will soon change. If, on the other hand, it becomes a battle between teacher and pupil, with the rest of the class as spectators, the problem of discipline may spread to include other pupils.

The Teacher and the Faculty

The school is an institution in which pupils are learning how to live. In the scheme of things the teacher occupies an important place. He is, however, one of a group engaged in the same kind of work. The entire faculty have a common task and, of necessity, there is unity in the work. Teachers can learn much in conferring with each other over their mutual problems. The beginning teacher tends to keep silent on school topics when he is in the presence of other members of the faculty. However, he may learn much about the pupils and the problems of the school if he will discuss them with the staff. Especially can he learn from those teachers who work with the same pupils that he does. He may find how they react in other classrooms and in their attitude toward schoolwork. At any rate, he will discover how other teachers face the problems with which he is confronted.

Many schools employ a guidance counselor. Part of the work of this member of the staff is to find information about pupils that will be of help to the teacher. Records are kept which give much information on the pupil's home life, his past scholastic record, his attitude toward school, his health, and his behavior. Test records such as intelligence quotient, read-

ing ability, vocational interests and ability may be available. The teacher should avail himself of the counselor's service, for he will understand better the pupils in his classroom. He may find out some of the conditions of the home life of the pupils that affect study and school attitude. This is important today, for after-school hours are often taken up with other activities. Some pupils work several hours after school is over; others practice music and take lessons. Television is occupying a larger place in the lives of pupils. A study of these problems aids in the evaluation of teaching. Even in schools that do not employ a counselor, the teacher should try to get as much information about his pupils as possible, for it will help him in his classroom procedure.

The teacher should work in cooperation with the administration. Unfortunately, there is often a feeling of tension between the teaching staff and the administration. Frequently, principals assume a dictatorial attitude toward teachers, not realizing that the teacher is an expert in his field and that both are engaged in a task that requires cooperation and the best that each can give. Sometimes teachers assume an employer-workman attitude, with no understanding of the professional aspects of the task. If there is cooperation, good work can be done in improving the school program. The principal is responsible for running the school. In general terms, he knows what he wants done and how it should be done. He is the one who can evaluate the school's program in its entirety. The teacher should constantly confer with him. If he visits the classroom, that should not be the time to put on a good show and to feel relieved after he leaves. It should be a time to follow the natural procedure of the classwork and then to invite his criticism of what he has observed. The beginning teacher, especially, can learn much from these conferences. The principal has seen many succeed and many fail. He can give valuable hints on what to do and what not to do. The teacher should go over his plans and his methods with him. He should confer with him about the problems he has met and how he has attempted to solve them. The principal can give valuable advice and cite the experience of other teachers in meeting similar problems. Nearly all administrators are glad to see such an attitude on the part of the teacher. It is an indication of the desire of the teacher to improve his work.

The Teacher and Academic Freedom

The teacher of the social studies not only is frequently in danger of being misunderstood by the public but he is also suspected if he differs from their viewpoints. Quite often, it is the better type, well-informed teacher who runs the gauntlet of public suspicion. It also depends to some extent on economic conditions to determine the pressure of the attacks. When times are good, schools are held in high esteem and teachers are

generally respected. When economic conditions are bad, schools quite frequently are the first to receive the brunt of public displeasure. During the last depression, schools in some communities were the objects of bitter attacks. Many of these were in small towns where a shallow provincialism existed. Teachers were frowned upon if they did not belong to the dominant political party or if they mentioned something favorable about the minority party. Teachers were condemned for explaining communism in their classes. While some of these conditions have passed away, the teacher must still be aware that by virtue of his position he is constantly being evaluated by the community, especially if it is a small town.

The teacher should always remember a few basic principles when he is confronted with this situation. In the first place, he is an authority on the subject that he teaches. When he is dealing with the facts of the course, he has full academic freedom. If the objectives of the course are aided by a discussion of a controversial issue, the public has no right to interfere. On the other hand, the teacher has no right to use school time to convert pupils to his opinions. There may be occasions when pupils will desire the teacher's opinion and he, of course, should give it. Yet the teacher should be careful to let pupils know that there are other views and that his is only one. The attitude of ridiculing the opinions of others has no place in the classroom. The teacher whose radical views of government cause him to ridicule the religious beliefs and moral standards of his pupils and their community has no place in American public education.

Outside the classroom, the teacher's opinion is a different matter. He may have complete freedom to express himself as he pleases. However, the wise teacher will remember that to the community he is still the school-teacher. If he is zealous about being an influence in the lives of his pupils, he will be careful not to do or say anything in the community that will destroy that influence. This does not mean that the teacher is to be a negative character. It does mean that a teacher may so build himself into the life of the pupils and the community that they will respect his views and opinions, even if they do not always agree.

The Teacher and Community Relations

The teacher should always remember that the school is the agent that society has set up to instruct its young members. He therefore has a definite relationship to society. He has an obligation to the parents of the pupils he teaches and to the community at large. Too often school people regard any interest on the part of the parents and community as interference in the school program. All have a right to know what is being done in the school. The teacher should encourage conferences with parents. Not only will he learn much about the pupil, but also will he learn that home and

school are engaged in a cooperative task. The home-and-school meeting is a valuable aid in promoting this. In some schools a period is set aside before the formal meeting for parents to meet the teachers. The faculty members should take the initiative in these meetings, for the parents are usually somewhat reticent. Many schools encourage visitation during school hours or at the end of the school day. If problems arise, teachers may write to the parents and ask for replies or conferences. A telephone call may be appropriate. In some places, the teacher may do a little home visitation. Teachers should welcome contacts with parents and encourage the tie-up of home and school in promoting better relations in the interest of the education of the pupil.

Teachers can become a greater force in the classroom through closer community relations. Much of the antagonism that develops occasionally between the teacher and the community or between the school and the community is due primarily to the lack of understanding that exists. The best way to secure a more cordial attitude is for the members of the faculty to cultivate better relationships. There is much to be said in favor of one's living in the town where he teaches, especially if it is a small locality. Church activities, club affairs, and social work offer opportunities for one to work his way into the heart of a community. Quite frequently, the social-studies teacher is called upon to speak at civic or community functions. Such service not only enhances the people's regard for the individual but also creates a better attitude toward the school. The teacher, however, should be careful not to overdo this type of work, to the neglect of his school duties. He should also discriminate between giving helpful service and becoming a social butterfly. The better he understands and serves the community and its people, the better he will be as a teacher.

Summary

The most important factor in education—the teaching staff—has often been the most neglected part of our educational program. This has been especially true in the teaching of history and the other social studies. The compelling motive in entering the profession should be service. The three essentials in the make-up of the successful teacher are scholarship, professional training, and personality. The relative importance of each of these is disputed, but personality is the background of all good teaching. Scholarship demands a mastery of the subject taught and a general, liberal education. The actual practice in schools is far from satisfactory, because often the teacher does not teach the subject for which he is prepared and, in many cases, he must teach one or two other subjects besides his own. The requirements for teaching have been gradually rising, although there is still much to be desired in the type and quality of the training. The nature

of many of the professional courses proves of little value to the teacher in practice, and some of the content courses have given him but little help. The training of the teacher in service is just as important as his training in college. Personality, however, is the determining factor of failure or success in teaching. It is well for the teacher to rate himself on those qualities which are necessary for successful teaching.

The teacher should constantly strive to improve those traits and abilities which lead toward success. He should strive at all times to cultivate good relations with his pupils. Sponsoring pupil organizations is of great worth in promoting good will, as is an interest in all pupil activities. The teacher should constantly cooperate with the other members of the staff, for all are engaged in a common task. Especially should he work closely with the administration. He should enjoy academic freedom, but should be careful not to do anything that will reflect on his position as a teacher. He should develop close community relations, because that will improve his standing as a force in the community.

Questions

1. Show how the teacher is more important in the training of pupils than is the equipment of a school.
2. Why do the social studies require the highest type of teachers?
3. Discuss the various motives for entering the teaching profession.
4. Discuss the slogan: "We are teaching pupils, not subject matter."
5. Why is a general, liberal education necessary for a social-studies teacher?
6. Show how a student may complete the requirements for teaching and yet be ill prepared to teach.
7. Why is the training of the teacher who is in service so important?
8. What are the various means that the teacher-in-service can utilize in improving himself?
9. What is the relation of habits to personality?
10. Go over the list of qualities and characteristics that enter into personality found in this chapter, and write down those which you think could easily be improved in your own life and those which would be difficult.
11. Use the rating sheet found on pages 206-207, and rate yourself as a teacher.
12. Choose a good teacher and a poor teacher and rate them according to the rating sheet.
13. What are the evils of a score sheet?
14. How can the teacher cultivate better relationships with his pupils?
15. Indicate how the teacher may cooperate with other members of the faculty.
16. What factors should the teacher consider in the problem of academic freedom?
17. Enumerate the various ways in which the teacher can cultivate better community relations.

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CHAPTER XII

TEACHER PLANNING

The Importance of Careful Planning

Careful planning is one of the essential features of good teaching. A teacher may know his subject well, may be acquainted with all the methods necessary for successful teaching, may have a telling personality, and yet may fail because he has neglected to map out the road toward the goal for which he is striving. Naturally, some teachers are able to plan more easily than others. Yet all teachers must plan. Indeed, careful planning is essential to any successful undertaking, whether it is the building of a bridge, the staging of an opera, or the preparation of a public speech. The training and development of a child is an important undertaking the complexity of which calls for greater planning and deeper thinking than all other tasks, if the results are to be successful.

Teacher planning, naturally, is determined largely by one's objective. Under the old *memoriter* system, the problem was comparatively easy. In the history course, it was necessary only to divide the textbook into daily assignments and then to formulate factual questions for the daily recitation, in order to discover whether or not the facts had been memorized. With the changed aims of today, lesson planning is a much more complex procedure and may take a variety of forms. Many means may be used by the teacher to accomplish his aims. Consequently, no definite form can be given for any teacher to follow exactly or to pattern after.

In some of our larger city schools, the course is organized and ready for the teacher to use. The topics and subtopics have been outlined, and the time required for each is specified. Most of the planning of the teacher is concerned with how to accomplish the daily task that has been set before him. In most schools, however, the teacher knows little more than that he is to teach certain courses. He must, therefore, organize the course in terms of the time allotted for the subject. In the chapter on unit organization, it was suggested that the course be organized in some such system as units, large topics, or problems. Whatever plan is used, the course should be outlined in large divisions. The divisions then may be divided into subtopics. The teacher should know the content of the courses that his pupils have had in the social studies previously and what they may have in the remainder of their high-school program.

It might be well to emphasize that the time a teacher spends in planning is time well spent. It is true that the conscientious teacher is already overworked and has difficulty in finding time for careful preparation. However, it is better to neglect other phases of the work than to ignore planning. If the teacher is required to make two or more daily preparations, it might be wise to plan carefully one course and to arrange the others as best he can. Then, the following year, one of the other courses can be carefully planned. In a few years, the teacher will have planned all his courses in a careful manner. This does not mean that the work of one year can be used in exactly the same way, year after year. Each year, the plans will have to be revised. The teacher's experience and knowledge will have grown. Old ideas will be changed somewhat. New illustrations will be used. However, it is not difficult to review and revise one's plans, year after year.

The Place of Objectives in Planning

In all planning, the dominant note must be the objectives. The teacher must bear in mind that there is a hierarchy of objectives, among which there must be no contradictions. This hierarchy extends from the general and proceeds to the specific. It includes:

1. The general objectives of the educational process
2. The subject, or course, objectives
3. The unit, or large-topic, objectives
4. The specific teaching objective for the daily lesson

General Objectives. More or less agreement prevails in regard to the general objectives of the educative process. Educators have stated them in different forms, but the substance of all is much the same. Ever since the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education gave its report on the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," many others have issued statements of general objectives. These have been discussed in a preceding chapter and indicate that, despite differences in emphasis, the trend is the same. The teacher must formulate all his objectives in harmony with these general principles. He must be careful that the more specific teaching aims he sets up are not in disagreement with the general objectives.

Subject Objectives. The subject, or course, objectives consist in the contribution that the particular subject, or course, makes to the general objectives of education. This is of vital concern to the teacher. He needs to find out why he is teaching economics, for example, and why that particular course in economics. With the general goals of education in mind, the teacher may well ask himself at the close of the school year what advance-

ment his pupils have made toward these goals by taking the course. If no advancement has been made, the teacher has failed in his task. The subject objectives, or the contributions of each subject, have already been outlined in the chapter on aims and objectives. The teacher must keep these constantly before him in all his work.

Unit, or Topic, Objectives. With the unit, or large-topic, objectives, the teacher is more vitally concerned, because it is he who must formulate the objectives for the units of subject matter. At the beginning of the school year, teachers are assigned certain courses and given textbooks to use in these courses. The teacher must then plan the course, first dividing the subject into its large divisions. There must, however, be a governing aim for each unit, or division. The teacher must know his purpose in teaching the unit. He must see that his purpose is in harmony with the objectives for his subject. The objective of each division of the course is important, for it governs the material that will go into the division. In teaching the social studies, especially history, what one omits in the course is just as important as what one includes. The trouble with much of our history teaching is that it includes too much material, for no other reason than that it might be interesting or that it ought to be known. If one has definite objectives for the unit or topic, nothing should be included unless it is of service in accomplishing those objectives.

The Specific Objective of the Daily Lesson. The specific teaching objective concerns what the teacher expects to achieve during the class hour. He should have a definite end in view as to what he expects to accomplish each day. For example, he may set up the objective to have the pupils understand the chief causes of the First World War. All his efforts are then bent to the task, that the pupils may, at the close of the lesson, have an understanding of these causes. As with all the other objectives, the specific teaching purpose must be in harmony with the hierarchy of objectives. Especially must it be in harmony with the unit, or topic, aim. Therefore, when the teacher draws up his specific-lesson objective, the former should be kept constantly in view. Both should be written out in order that there may be no confusion. An example of this relating to the origin of the government under the Constitution is as follows:

Unit objective: To develop an insight into how the new nation was formed and how an adequate government was inaugurated.

Specific objective: To develop an understanding as to why the central government was weak under the Articles of Confederation.

It is easily seen in this example that the unit objective is the aim of a unit that will take many lessons to accomplish, whereas the specific objec-

tive is one of a part of that unit, which should be accomplished by the close of the day's lesson.

It is of utmost importance that the lesson aim be specific. Many teachers who are conscientious in planning tend to ignore the specific objective and use only the general one for the series of lessons. For example, the unit objective just given can be used alone for the series of lessons until the unit of work is completed. The danger in this is that it might result in much loose work, that much extraneous material will be included in the topic, and that the pupil will have but a hazy idea of the topic at the conclusion of the study. An important value of the daily aim lies in the fact that it gives one a standard by which he may judge his work at the close of the day. The daily objective is a statement of what the teacher intends his pupils to accomplish for the lesson. For instance, in the specific objective just given, the teacher intends that his class, at the close of the period, will understand why the central government was weak under the Articles of Confederation. At the close of the period, he is able to estimate in some measure whether or not the pupils have attained the goal that he has set up for them.

Another danger that the teacher must avoid lies in having too many aims in a single lesson. This danger is very acute in the history lesson, where there seems to be so much important material. The human mind is not built in such a way that it can grasp the significance of many unrelated events at once. The singleness of aim is far superior to the scattering of aims in many directions. Good teaching should result in the mastery of a few major ideas, rather than a hodgepodge of many ideas which are not thoroughly understood.

The Teacher's Objectives Expressed in Terms of Pupil Desire. Many articles found in educational magazines emphasize the pupil's aim. This is the same as the teacher's specific objective, except that it is expressed in terms of the pupil's desire and activity. Ideally, it states something that the pupils desire to do and will do. In the example given above, the pupil's aim should shape up something like this: "Let us see why the government was weak and inefficient under the Articles of Confederation." A real desire to know and understand the difficulties of that period constitutes a good example of a pupil's aim.

After all, the pupil's aim is a matter of motivation. It is unwise for a teacher to think that he can set up an aim for the pupil without motivation and then expect the pupil to accept it as his own. On the other hand, it is not impossible for a pupil to become interested in a problem set before him by his teacher and to achieve important results. So far as the pupil aim is concerned, however, it is the teacher's task to motivate the work and develop interest, so that the pupils will desire to take up the task or prob-

lem as their own. This does away with the attitude that they are pleasing the teacher or working for grades, and it gives them a definite aim and an incentive to accomplish for themselves. Such motivation on the part of the teacher calls forth the highest elements in the art of teaching.

The Harmonizing of Objectives. In this discussion, we have emphasized the need of harmony in the objectives—general, subject, unit, and lesson. There must be no contradiction between the remote and the immediate objectives. We have made this emphasis because quite frequently much of our teaching presents the sad spectacle of a wide difference between general and specific objectives. Teachers will nod approvingly at the general educational goals and then frequently teach in contradiction to them. Much of the confusion often found in teaching the social studies is due to this very fact. For instance, in history, our major aims center in the understanding. Yet we enter many classrooms only to find the exact opposite being emphasized. In one class, an assignment consists in the memorization of a series of names. In another, a list of dates has to be memorized. In view of our aims, is this legitimate? It may be true that a pupil should know that Andrew Jackson became president in 1829 and know something of the sequence of the events of his administrations, but should this not come through an understanding of the events, rather than a meaningless memorization of successive dates and events which are remembered today and forgotten tomorrow? The teaching of history is still suffering from the old evils of the *memoriter* system, and many still think of it in terms of names, dates, and events to be remembered, and not in the broad understanding of movements. It is no wonder, then, that pupils encounter so many difficulties in their study of the subject and learn to hate the most interesting of all studies.

Procedures in Planning the Daily Lesson

Daily-lesson planning involves three procedures. Many elaborate plans have been set up for the daily work, but they all have these three essentials as a basis:

1. Defining and stating the aims and objectives.
2. Selecting and arranging the subject matter.
3. Determining the method of procedure in teaching the subject matter whereby the aims and objectives will be achieved.

We have already discussed the defining of aims and objectives and will now consider the other two essentials in planning.

The Selection and Arrangement of Subject Matter. The second aspect of planning the daily lesson concerns selecting and arranging the subject

matter. The selection of material requires careful discrimination in all the social studies. So much material is interesting or seems important that the teacher may be tempted to forget his aim and introduce some of this extraneous material in the lesson. Nothing must be included in the lesson that does not contribute to the aim. Another thing to remember is that much material on the subject cannot be used. The understanding sought can be easily lost in a mass of detail, even though the details are related, to some extent. Much pertinent material, therefore, may have to be sacrificed because it does not aid the specific purpose in view.

The teacher must take great care in his use of the textbook. There is a tendency among many instructors to believe that pupils should know everything that the textbook contains. The teacher must bear in mind that the textbook writer has merely made a selection of material and that this selection is often made without any knowledge of the learning process or of the higher aims of secondary education. Various textbook writers also show wide divergence in their selection of subject matter, despite the fact that they are aware of what others who have preceded them have done. The material of the textbook must be regarded as subject matter to be used in the light of specific aims, not as something to be closely followed. The teacher may see the need of rearranging the material. A part of it may have to be eliminated, and some of it may be so meager that it will have to be supplemented by means of assignments in other books and sources.

This does not mean that the teacher must entirely rearrange the textbook. Too often teachers move along on the assumption that the more they depart from the order of the textbook, the better teachers they will be. If a textbook is used as the basis of study, the teacher will find it profitable to depart from its order only when he can see clearly that it will profit the pupils to do so. Many pupils have been hopelessly confused in their studies because the teacher has insisted on making a hodgepodge of the text.

The selection and arrangement of materials for a history course is a much harder problem than selecting and arranging them for the other social studies. Many plans have been worked out. The usual way is to follow the chronological order for the course. Another arrangement is the topical plan, in which the course is organized on the basis of about twelve or more topics, each of which cuts through the entire period of the history studied. A modification of the plan is to organize the course partly on the chronological scheme and partly on the topical. For instance, in a course in American history, the organization would follow the chronological order to the Civil War and then be treated in a topical way to the present. The course after the Civil War might include such topics as Big Business,

Labor, Agriculture, Conservation, Imperialism, Transportation and Communication, International Relations, and American Culture. In a course on World History, the chronological order might be followed to the beginning of the modern period and then a topical arrangement to the present, including such units as Economic Life, Growth of Democracy, Advance of Science, Nationalism, Imperialism, Militarism, World Organization, and Culture. Another plan of organization is to follow the chronological order but to organize each unit around six to eight topics, such as Economic Life, Government, Religion, Education, and Culture.

Most of the older textbooks follow a chronological procedure. Many of the newer books are introducing some aspects of the topical arrangement, especially a chronological treatment of the early period and a topical approach to the latter period.

In regard to the arranging of subject matter, much has been said by many writers about the psychological order, as opposed to the logical. By following the psychological order is meant that the material is arranged in terms of the learner's experience, rather than in terms of the subject itself. This is an excellent idea and was advocated as early as the eighteenth century by Rousseau in his *Emile*. However, many writers today, when they advocate this arrangement in the social studies, mean nothing more than pupil motivation. For example, if the topic is the financial problems of the new government in the formative period of American history, the subject is introduced by a discussion of the necessity for taxation in one's own community at the present time. Or again, if one wishes to study the geography of Brazil, the motivation is supplied by a discussion of the present coffee consumption in the United States.

Such procedures are excellent. However, many evils have arisen under the guise of the psychological arrangement of material. If one were to follow literally some of the schemes advanced under this name, he would begin the study of history with his own community in the year in which he lives and end it with the story of mankind at the dawn of civilization. It is wise to remember that the life of the Spartan boy of 2,500 years ago may be understood by a pupil in one of our city schools just as easily as the life of the farmer boy living at the present time only ten or fifteen miles away. Nor is it necessary to study the life of the farmer boy in order to understand the life of the Spartan boy. Many of the errors in educational theory are due to the fact that certain individuals persist in attempting reforms when the need for such reforms has passed. There are some who point to the condemnation of the use of the logical order by Herbart and other educators. But when Herbart condemned the basing of sequence upon the subject itself, what he censured in history was the policy of first erecting a solid chronological framework upon which historical facts were

to be inserted later. Today, no one thinks of teaching history in such a manner. It is therefore essential in teaching the social studies not to ignore the logical arrangement of subject matter, but it is necessary to base that arrangement on the experience of the pupil. This constitutes a true psychological basis.

Selecting the Method of Procedure. After one has selected and arranged the material, the next step is to determine the method of procedure whereby this material will accomplish the aims that have been set up. The teacher must plan the activity for the entire lesson. He must determine what methods and devices he will use during the period. He may select the socialized recitation, supervised study, the discussion procedure, or other methods. The place may be found where the lecture method will be advantageous. Devices such as the blackboard, map making, and illustrative material may be used. Pupil reports can occupy part of the time. Outlining or summarizing may be required. Many teachers in their planning formulate from six to eight thought-provoking questions on the lesson. It is essential that the teacher know how he is going to proceed during the class hour. Of course, there will be deviations from the plan in the classroom, but it is more effective and meaningful to deviate from a set plan than to trust to chance, with possible disastrous results.

The Essential Parts of the Lesson

In actual practice it would be difficult to outline a pattern to follow in the daily work. Teaching cannot be put into a mold. Lessons vary with the method used and the content of the subject. Generally speaking, however, there may be four essential parts in the lesson. These are: (1) the review, (2) the advanced lesson, (3) the summary, and (4) the assignment. No time limit can be placed on any one of these parts. The time spent will vary with the lessons. Occasionally, an entire period can be given over to the review of the previous lesson or lessons. Occasionally, an assignment will take up a large part of the period. Naturally, however, in most lessons, the advanced work will take up most of the time.

The Review. There are two main purposes in the review part of the recitation. In the first place, the review will bring out the broad meanings of the previous lesson. Probably some of the pupils have acquired many facts that they have not related to movements and to deeper meaning. The teacher can then lead his class to discover these broader aspects. In this sense, the review is entirely different from reciting the facts learned during the previous lesson. The second purpose of the review is to give an apperceptive basis for the new lesson. The new material must be built upon the old in order to become intelligible. This demands such a selection of material for review that the new will grow out of the old.

In his lesson plan, the teacher will include just what he expects to accomplish by the review. He will then outline the material that he will use to accomplish this end. Next, he will determine what method of procedure to follow. This may be done in a variety of ways, depending on the nature of the review. The usual way to do it is by skillful questioning, bringing out the thoughts that the teacher has in mind. The review may also be made by giving short tests at the beginning of the period, having forewarned the pupils on the previous day. Brief class discussions, carefully directed by the teacher, often serve as excellent forms of review. These procedures will not only accomplish the general purposes of reviewing mentioned in the preceding paragraph but also reveal the weaknesses of the pupils or the class. Another procedure, which if well done will produce effective results, is a short review lecture by the teacher. If carefully planned and adequately accomplished, this procedure not only will achieve the purposes of reviewing but also will produce motivation. The importance of brief, daily reviews and also more elaborate reviews at long intervals, including large phases of the subject, cannot be minimized, for the importance and value of systematic reviewing are established facts in the psychology of learning.

The Advanced Lesson. After the review has provided the apperceptive basis for the new work, the advanced lesson is begun. If the review has been properly conducted, the pupils will have the "mental set" to begin the new material. The teacher must outline the topics to be considered and note what parts are to be emphasized. The method of procedure must be thought out in detail. It has already been stated that many teachers, in their planning, work out six to eight pivotal questions on important phases of the lesson. The teacher must include in this part of the lesson plan the activities that he and the pupils will be engaged in during the entire period. Plans can be made for developing discussion; schemes for motivating the work must be attempted; difficult parts of the lesson will be explained; certain important words will be simply but clearly defined; special devices must be worked out to arouse and stir the dull and unprepared pupils; and provision must be made for the use of maps, graphs, diagrams, pictures, source material, and other aids at the right time. All these preparations must be made in the lesson plan before the lesson. If they are intelligently planned and carried out, there should not be any difficulty in achieving the aims and objectives set up.

The Summary. One of the most effective phases of good teaching is the summary at the close of the new lesson. This serves to systematize the knowledge gained in the lesson so that the meaning becomes significant and the fundamental points stand out distinguished from the incidental. This is much the same procedure as that of the first part of the lesson—the

review. However, the two may involve entirely different procedures. The summary may take the form of an outline worked out by pupils and the teacher on the blackboard. The review the next day can then take a new viewpoint of the material, in which other relationships are shown. The summary may be made by the teacher in brief lecture form, or certain pupils may be called on to discuss the main points of the lesson. Too much stress cannot be placed on summarizing and reviewing; for even though the facts are important in the social studies, the relationships of the facts are much more significant.

The Assignment. The final part of the lesson concerns the assignment. Many educators consider this the most important part of the lesson. If teaching is to be regarded as directing the learning of the pupil, its significance is apparent. Yet many teachers neglect this important phase of the lesson. Quite frequently the teacher gives no further directions than the statement: "Take the next five pages for tomorrow." He very rarely considers what meaning the pupils will attach to such a command. Some of the pupils will think this to mean that they should memorize the facts in those pages. If the teacher assigns reading at all, he should make it quite plain as to what he expects the pupils to get out of the reading.

There are several requisites of a good assignment. In the first place, the teacher should discuss the new lesson upon the background of the lesson just completed. In other words, the assignment should naturally grow out of the lesson, and enough should be said about it so that the pupils will know where they are going and what they are going to do. If this is done right, the curiosity of the pupils will be aroused and the motivation for pursuing the study will result. For example, if the previous lesson dealt with the problems facing the new government in 1789 and the new lesson consists in some of the measures taken to solve them, the teacher might proceed thus:

We have seen the tremendous problems facing the new government when Washington took charge. Tomorrow we shall see some of the measures taken to overcome them. Especially will we take up the policies of Alexander Hamilton, who was made Secretary of the Treasury. This man is one of the most interesting in American history. His views were opposed constantly by Thomas Jefferson, whom Washington made Secretary of State. The friction that developed between these two master minds over the solution of the many national problems makes an exciting story. The measures taken by Hamilton, in spite of much opposition, placed the country on a firm financial footing. We are going to see what these were.

The assignment must be definite. The pupil must know exactly what is required of him. This may be accomplished by giving questions, exercises, or problems that the pupils can solve. It may include written work; the

mastery of parts of the textbook; or the making of an outline, a map, or a graph. The type of questions, exercises, and problems will depend upon the age and the grade of the pupils. The more intricate problems will come in the higher grades; the more concrete questions in the lower grades. It must be remembered that written work is not an end in itself, but only a means to a better understanding. Probably, more emphasis should be placed on reading, in the average school.

The assignment must also smooth out the difficulties that the pupil may meet when he is preparing the work. This does not mean that learning must be made too easy. It does mean that unnecessary difficulties that hinder understanding and cause the pupil to lose interest must be banished. Difficult passages must be explained. Important words and idiomatic phrases must be made clear. Methods of outlining must be presented, and the means of interpreting pictures, maps, and graphs must be carefully given. Suggestions about the best procedures should be made. In making the assignment, teachers should show their pupils how to study and how to master their assignments.

Another element that must be considered in the assignment is the time that the pupil can use for doing it. Many a teacher assigns work as if his own subject were the only one in the school, hoping thereby to make a showing in the results achieved by his pupils in the course. Too long an assignment is worse than one that is too short. A long assignment makes the pupil disgusted and careless in his work. The length of the assignment will depend on many things, such as the maturity of the pupils, individual differences in the pupils, the amount of extracurricular work in which they engage, and the amount of classroom work required. On the average, the preparation of the assignment in high-school subjects should not require more time than the class recitation period.

In any class, it will be found that a few of the pupils will complete their work outside the classroom in a comparatively short time, whereas a few will proceed very slowly. Roughly speaking, as has been shown already, there are three groups of pupils—bright, average, and slow. The usual procedure is to make the assignment fit the average group. The slow pupils are therefore penalized for their innate dullness, whereas the bright pupils have an easy time because of their superior ability. Such a procedure is unfair, because it imposes a burden on the dull pupils and fails to challenge the latent ability of the bright ones. To meet this situation, teachers have prepared differentiated assignments which are adjusted to the various capacities of the pupils. These are usually classified as follows: (1) minimum assignment, (2) average assignment, and (3) maximum assignment. With this method of assignment in use, the slow pupils complete the minimum, the average pupils complete both the minimum

and the average, and the bright ones will master the three assignments. Such an arrangement as this is excellent. It must also be remembered that when extra work is provided for the brighter ones, those who can work the most rapidly are generally those of higher intelligence and who can do work of a more difficult and more abstract nature.

It has been implied in this discussion that the assignment should come at the close of the period. There is no general agreement that this is the best time. Some insist that the assignment should come at the beginning of the period; others maintain that it should be given at the most opportune time in the lesson. That is to say, situations will arise during the lessons at which time it will be best to give the assignment. Although in certain subjects it is not important when the assignment is made, in the social studies it should grow out of the lesson. Indeed, it should be the natural outgrowth of the lesson. The chief objection to making the assignment at the close of the period is the likelihood that teachers will not regulate the time element to give themselves sufficient opportunity to make a proper assignment. The teacher needs to train himself to give first consideration to the time necessary for the assignment.

The Lesson Plan

All through the discussion in this chapter, it has been emphasized that planning cannot be a stereotyped affair in the social studies. What has been said is suggestive rather than final. It might become monotonous to follow a similar plan day after day. Some of the methods mentioned in the earlier chapters of the book also call for a different type of planning. Certainly, in a course of problems, provision should be made to discuss the questions that arise in the minds of pupils over the issues of the present. Also daily planning would be different in history than it would be for the nonhistorical social studies. The review in a problems course would necessarily be different from that of one in history. Under a supervised-study procedure and those procedures which involve laboratory work, elaborate daily-lesson planning by the teacher for the class as a whole is eliminated. Under such plans, assignment sheets, guidance outlines, or workbooks are used and most of the planning has already been done for each pupil, who is proceeding at his own rate. However, in most schools careful and detailed daily-lesson planning is necessary. The following, therefore, is given as a suggestive plan:

- I. Teacher's aim
 - A. General—aim of topic or unit
 - B. Specific—aim for the day's work
- II. Pupil's aim—what pupils are expected to do

III. Daily lesson

A. Review

1. Content
2. Method of procedure

B. The new lesson

1. Content
2. Method of procedure

C. The summary

D. The assignment

The Movement toward Teacher-Pupil Planning

During recent years, under the impetus of the idea of pupil activity, some educators have advocated pupil participation in the planning of the work to be done. Many plans have been proposed, arranged for differing degrees of participation by the pupils. In an extreme plan, the pupils with the aid of the teacher choose the problem or units that they wish to take up during the semester or the school year. Many days may be spent on this, because much discussion may take place over the relative importance and interest of the various topics. The teacher may also be called upon frequently to explain some of the items, so that the pupils may more intelligently choose what they wish to study. After the choice has been made, the class organizes for the first assignment. Pupils and teacher plan how they are going to study the unit or solve the problem. Time and thought are given to choosing the books and magazines to be studied, as well as to a consideration of what other activities are necessary. In the actual work, much time will be spent on a supervised study basis. Provision will be made for discussions, class trips, films, or any other devices necessary. In all of this pupil planning has an important place. In another plan, the teacher comes to the class with a general idea of the unit to be studied, but the pupils organize the details. In a plan, similar in some respects to the foregoing, the faculty decide on the units and the pupils, under the guidance of the teacher, determine the method to follow, the topics to be investigated, the bibliography, and the plan of procedure.

It is difficult to evaluate pupil planning in the classroom, especially when one considers the entire program of the school. It is true that the procedure develops initiative and self-reliance, and it also gives the pupils a technique for studying a problem. However, whether or not it should go so far as some of the plans mentioned in the preceding paragraph is another question. Many who have experimented with the idea believe that pupils, especially those in the lower classes, are too immature for extensive planning and that the procedure often resolves itself into a question of motivation of the units that the teacher wants studied. Pupil planning has

also been criticized as time-consuming. It is evident that a pupil will acquire much less knowledge under such a system than under some other methods. However, those who advocate such a procedure insist that the values inherent in it greatly offset the loss of material that might be learned.

The pupil-planning procedure that has been presented here has not made much progress in the schools. Under the present setup, teachers to be successful must carefully plan the work. This does not mean that the procedure must be so rigid that no deviation is permitted. The problems that are vital and meaningful to the pupil should be taken up in class. Pupils should have the opportunity of bringing up their questions and problems. The development of traits inherent in pupil planning should not be neglected. However, it must be kept in mind that there are other phases of the school program that aid in achieving such aims. This does not mean that the classroom should neglect these activities, under the supposition that they are developed by other organizations of the school. There may be a real need for activities such as pupil-planned forums or discussions in the classroom.

Summary

Careful planning is essential to good teaching. The course has to be planned, as well as the daily lesson. In all planning the end in view takes the significant place. There is a hierarchy of objectives—general, subject, unit, and daily-lesson objectives. Care must be taken that there is harmony among them. The aim of the daily lesson must in no way contradict the other objectives. The pupil aim is the teacher's daily objective, expressed in terms of the pupil's desire and activity. This is really a matter of motivation. Daily-lesson planning involves defining the objective, selecting and arranging the subject matter, and determining the method of procedure. No subject matter should be included that does not contribute to the aim. It is best not to depart from the logical order unless the deviation is shown to benefit the pupil and is based on his experiences. In the ordinary lesson there may be four essential parts: the review, the advanced lesson, the summary, and the assignment. The review will bring out the broad meanings of the previous lesson and provide the apperceptive basis for the new. The summary is important in tying up the loose ends of knowledge into a meaningful whole. The assignment is significant in accomplishing good work. It should grow naturally out of the lesson and be definitely stated. Care must be taken that the assignment does not present any insurmountable difficulties. To meet individual differences, the assignment should be differentiated. In recent years, there has been a movement toward pupil participation in planning. It has been difficult to evaluate the results; for while desirable traits are developed, pupils do not

learn so much subject material. The benefits of pupil planning, however, should not be neglected.

Questions

1. Why is teacher planning so important?
2. What is the relation of objectives to planning?
3. Give reasons for having a daily-lesson aim.
4. Tell the difference between the teacher's aim and the pupil's aim.
5. Why is it important for a teacher to ascertain whether there is harmony among his hierarchy of objectives?
6. Name the three procedures in daily-lesson planning.
7. Develop a general unit aim for a unit in history. Work out a few specific daily aims.
8. Why is the selection and arrangement of material for a history course harder than for courses in the other social studies?
9. When should the teacher depart from the logical arrangement of subject matter?
10. What are the essential parts of the lesson?
11. Name the purposes of the review.
12. Why is the summary important?
13. What are the requisites of a good assignment?
14. Give reasons for a differentiated assignment.
15. What are the advantages and disadvantages of pupil planning?

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CHAPTER XIII

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The Place of the Library in the School

The library has become an indispensable part of the structure of the secondary school. Modern methods of instruction, which emphasize the need for training pupils to think independently, require the provision of a variety of materials. The modern library, working in close cooperation with other departments of the school, undertakes the administration of these materials, their acquisition and organization, and guidance in their use.

The physical appearance of the school library will be determined by the size and nature of the school. If the building is of recent construction, the architect has probably given due consideration to its needs in his plan and has provided a room, or suite of rooms, that has good natural and artificial light, is well ventilated, is easily accessible, and has the possibility of expansion. Every school library should have a reading room large enough to accommodate a reasonable number of pupils and a librarian's workroom. The amount of floor space for the reading room has been estimated at twenty-five square feet per reader.

The books should be on open shelves where they will be available to the pupils. The location of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, reference books, card catalogue—indeed, every tool that receives constant use—should be determined by the ease with which it may be used in that particular situation. If the *Readers' Guide* is placed as near as possible to the section of the library in which back issues of magazines are kept, much unnecessary moving about the room may be avoided and the magazines will probably be replaced more promptly and accurately.

The size of the library is determined in part by the kind of study-hall facilities offered by the school. If adequate provision is made in the study halls for all pupils not attending classes, the library may well seat a smaller number of pupils. If it must be used to relieve crowded study-hall conditions, additional space will be required.

Most librarians feel that the combination of library and study hall is to be avoided, if possible, because of the distinctly different functions of the two. The study hall must have formality of arrangement, atmosphere,

and discipline. Attendance is compulsory. The librarian attempts to provide the pupil with the maximum amount of freedom in which initiative and guidance are combined. It is highly desirable that the library should be readily accessible to the study hall; it may well be adjacent; but the treatment of the two as entirely separate units—each supervised according to the functions that it is organized to perform—will usually be the more successful arrangement.

Equipping the Library

The modern school library should be an attractive room, but those responsible for selecting its equipment must consider the importance of convenience and durability, as well as appearance, in the selection of furnishings. Essential equipment for any library consists of shelving; tables and chairs; a librarian's desk; filing cabinets for catalogue cards; and vertical files for pictures, pamphlets, and clippings. The shelving must be adjustable if valuable space is to be conserved; tables should be of proper height and size; and the chairs comfortable and sturdy. Cabinets for catalogue cards should be purchased from a library supply house in order that drawers be of regulation size to accommodate catalogue cards. Most school libraries will also need magazine and newspaper racks, a display case, one or more bulletin boards, and a book truck. Lock magazine covers are very desirable, because they present a neat appearance and preserve the magazine from soil and theft. They may be placed in a display rack or on parallel shelves. Newspapers may be placed on rods in a special frame or may be stapled in four places along the folded margin and kept on a table. Bulletin boards have many uses. If bulletin-board space is available elsewhere in the school, in a corridor, study hall, or even the cafeteria, a portion of the space allocated to the library may be used to display book jackets and thus advertise new books to those who do not regularly frequent the library.

The workroom should contain a table on which such tasks as mending, mounting pictures, and preparing new books for the shelves may be done. There should be adequate closet space for the storage of supplies and for books awaiting the bindery. Placing the table in the center of the room enables two or three people to work at one time. The workroom should be connected with the library if possible. Another door leading into a corridor is very desirable, thus making possible the delivery of books and supplies without disturbance. The workroom is the natural location of the library typewriter. Here the librarian may type her catalogue and shelf-list cards and letters, bibliographies, reports, and bulletins to teachers, without fear of disturbing the readers in the library; yet she may be near enough to be available if need arises.

The primary function of the modern library is one of service. Whether it be a public, college, or school library, it is organized with the purpose of making available to its borrowers the best material in the most convenient form and in the most accessible manner. The school librarian depends upon the members of the faculty to help her accomplish this aim. It is through them that she should develop her library, for they understand the needs and interests of the pupils. The librarian has little contact with the pupils, and only in a general way does she know the goals toward which the teacher is striving. This does not mean that the librarian is merely the agent of the teachers. The librarian knows most about the general field of the library; the teacher understands a great deal about the needs of his particular subject. Together they complement each other. The librarian can give valuable aid and worth-while suggestions to the teacher. The latter knows the needs and interests of his pupils. Together they can work in achieving the aims of education in this particular area.

The Social Studies and the Library

The library serves all the departments of the school. Naturally some subjects require more of the library than do others. The English department, for example, requires much material. The very nature of the social studies demands a wide reading program. The budget, then, that the librarian receives must be divided in many ways, according to needs and use. This necessitates cooperation on the part of the faculty. The social studies should get their share. Each subject must receive its due appropriation. Often, many desirable books cannot be obtained immediately. Plans must be made for a growing library. Books must be added when funds are available, based on the needs of the departments.

The aim should be to have a working library. Many school libraries rank high on the number and type of books that they possess, but low on the use of the books by the pupils. In selecting books, care must be so exercised that they are what the pupils need, and plans must be made for their use. The library should be built on the courses that are taught. It is a waste of money for a school to have two sets of encyclopedias if they are rarely used. It is a waste of space to have a book on the shelf that is not read.

The teacher of the social studies should work in close cooperation with the librarian. His subject is one that requires much reading if it is to be rich and meaningful. Realizing that the budget is limited, he should see to it that his course gets its rightful share. He should prepare a list of what he needs and indicate on the list the order of importance of each item. Some books may be obtained immediately; others may be bought at some future time. Naturally, the teacher should be familiar with those already

in the library. Too often in many schools, material that could be used is never utilized because the teacher does not know that it is in the library. He should find out what he can use in his particular course and then base his future needs on this material. Of course, he must insure that the new books that he obtains will also be used. It is provoking to a librarian to buy a book at the request of a teacher and then find that the book has very little circulation. Librarians are usually glad to cooperate with teachers. If the pupils make demands on the library that cannot be met immediately, the librarian will work diligently to meet the need.

The teacher should appraise the reference books, the source books, and the collateral texts and then estimate what his needs are in supplementary reading. He should plan for wide reading on the part of his pupils. If the course is based on units or large divisions of subject matter, he should have a reading list for each unit or division. It may be best to have a large, comprehensive list of the useful books on the subject. Then he can indicate which ones are in the school library, so that the pupils may know that these books can be obtained there. From the same list, he can inform the librarian which ones he would like her to obtain next, in the order of their importance. Another advantage of a large list is that the pupil may get some of his books from the town or some other library. This is especially important if the school library is poorly equipped. A copy of the book list may be posted in the library. If the school has a mimeographing machine, a copy may be placed in the hands of each pupil.

The Selection of Books for the Social Studies

It has been indicated that a teacher is able to make little use of the library unless he has become familiar with its contents. One of the first tasks of the beginning teacher should be to become thoroughly acquainted with the library. After he has acquired a knowledge of what it contains, he is qualified to work with the librarian in selecting additional materials. No librarian is expected to know as much about a given subject as the teacher who has spent years of study in specializing in that particular field. The selection of books from the point of view of the social-studies teacher may be divided into three categories: those which have material for several different departments, those which pertain to the social studies in general, and those which apply to a particular subject in the social studies. The selection of books will depend on many factors. The need for the books and the amount of money available will be the deciding ones.

In the selection of books that pertain to several departments, the librarian will have a deciding voice. Most schools have either the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* or the *Encyclopedia Americana*. Some have both. Whether or not they should have others depends on the size of the school,

the use that will be made of them, and the library budget. The *World Book Encyclopedia* is a good reference set for the secondary school. *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* is of value. The *Lincoln Library of Essential Information* and the *Columbia Encyclopedia* are handy one-volume references.

Many reference books treat the social studies in general. The selection of these rests with the teachers of the social studies, working in cooperation with the librarian. If the budget is limited, a judicious selection has to be made. Three reference sets, published in recent years, are: *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, *Dictionary of American Biography*, and *Dictionary of American History*. An earlier set is the *New Larned History for Ready Reference, Reading and Research*. These sets are too expensive for the average school, although sometimes they may be purchased second-hand. One-volume reference books are available. Three of these are: *Concise Dictionary of National Biography*; *Putnam's Dictionary of Events*; and *Langer's Encyclopedia of World History*, based on *Ploetz' Epitome*. Books such as *American Year Book*, *Statesman's Year Book*, and the *World Almanac* are excellent for statistics. Some use may be made of *Who's Who* and *Who's Who in America*, as well as *Who Was Who* (three vols.) and *Who Was Who in America* (two vols.).

Books that relate to one's subject will be selected by the teacher, with the aid and advice of the librarian. What these books might be depends largely on what the teacher is attempting to do in his classes and the procedure that he is following. He may have need of several collateral texts. Of course, this implies that he is going to have some or all of his pupils use them. If he does not intend to use other texts, they should not be placed in the library. If he is going to use collateral texts in the higher grades, he should have some on the shelf on the college level. It would be excellent to assign readings in such books to those who intend to go to college. On the other hand, easier texts should be available for the poorer readers.

What is true of texts is true of source books. They should be purchased only if the teacher intends and plans for his pupils to use them. Many of these are published for the various types of history in the school. Few source books in the nonhistorical social studies have appeared on the secondary level. Among the source books and readings in history are the following:

BOTSFORD, G. W., and L. M. BOTSFORD, *Source Book of Ancient History*.

COMMAGER, H. S., *Documents of American History*.

COMMAGER, H. S., and ALLAN NEVINS, *The Heritage of America: Readings in American History for High School*.

FORMAN, S. E., *Sidelights on Our Social and Economic History*.

HART, A. B., *American History Told by Contemporaries*, 5 vols.

MACDONALD, W., *Documentary Source Book of American History*.

MCDERMOTT, W. C., and W. E. CALDWELL, *Readings in the History of the Ancient World*.

MUZZEY, D. S., *Readings in American History*.

WOESTEMEYER, I. F., and J. M. GAMBRILL, *The Westward Movement*.

CHEYNEY, E. P., *Readings in English History*.

OGG, F. A., *Source Book of Mediaeval History*.

ROBINSON, J. H., *Readings in European History*, 2 vols.

WEBSTER, H., *Historical Source Book*.

In the selection of the other books for his course, the teacher must exercise caution. These books may be divided into two categories: fiction and nonfiction. In the nonfiction field, he will have books dealing with social, political, or economic conditions. Others may portray a phase of history. Some will be of a biographical nature. Reference has been made to the suggestion that the teacher should work out a large and varied list for each unit or large division. In the field of American history, sets have appeared that cover the subject from early times down to the present. Probably the best of these for high-school use is the "Chronicles of America" series in more than fifty volumes. The series known as the "American Nation" in twenty-eight volumes is another set of much value, although some of the books are difficult for high-school pupils. Many of them are excellent for the better secondary-school pupil. A third set is the "History of American Life" series in thirteen volumes. Unless all the books of a set are to be used, it is questionable whether they should all be bought. In most sets, individual books may be purchased separately. For the high-school library, it is better to buy each book on its own merit rather than because it is part of a set. The qualifications of a volume depend on its worth in the unit or division of work, plus its appeal to the needs and interests of the pupils. Books must be selected to fit varying needs and abilities. Some must be easy; others, more difficult. Some will be fiction; others, nonfiction.

The teacher must read widely. He should be familiar with the books in his field. Although there may be too many for him to read, he should strive to become acquainted with as many as possible. He should know what is published in his field. The librarian may help him in this. The *Standard Catalogue for High School Libraries* and its supplements are valuable aids, through their brief comments, on new publications. Libraries that can afford to buy the *Book Review Digest* have an excellent aid in book selection. The *American Library Association Booklist* is also a first-class guide in the choice of new books. The book-review sections of Sunday papers, especially the *New York Times*, contains much information on new publications.

Care must be exercised in the choice of fiction. Historical accuracy must be respected, although some distortion is acceptable and, in some cases perhaps, even necessary. Fiction is not history, but it may give a better understanding of the past than that which is learned in class. It may develop an interest in history and a desire to know more about earlier periods. Some novels are valuable aids in studying history. Many truths in the non-historical social studies can be made more meaningful to pupils by their treatment in fiction. A valuable aid in selecting fiction is Hannah Logasa, *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Classes in Junior and Senior High School* (rev. ed., 1949).

The Selection of Magazines and Newspapers for the Social Studies

The choice of magazines for the library also calls for the combined judgment of teacher and librarian. The nature of the work in the social studies requires a greater use of magazines in that field than in any other. Naturally, the courses dealing with current problems and events will have a greater need for periodicals than those courses of a strictly historical nature. The discussion of current political and social problems cannot adequately be treated in books. Weekly magazines such as *Time* and *Newsweek* are indispensable. *The Nation* and the *New Republic* contain good material. Monthly magazines such as *Harper's*, *Survey Graphic*, *Atlantic*, and *Current History* contain many worth-while articles that pupils may read. Pupils enjoy reading the articles in the *Reader's Digest*. The *National Geographic Magazine* should be in all libraries. The number of magazines necessary will depend on the use that is made of them. In some cases, it may be better to have two or three copies of the same magazine instead of adding to the number of different ones.

In order to be useful, back numbers of the magazines must be organized in a way that makes them readily available. Binding, except for those of permanent value such as *National Geographic Magazine*, is more of an expense than most school libraries can afford. Magazines in the school library are of value only as long as the articles that they contain are accurate and up to date. Few schools will have occasion to use periodicals that antedate the two most recent biannual cumulations of the *Readers' Guide*. Bound magazines have also the disadvantage of one user's monopolizing all the issues for the period covered by the volume. A practical method of organizing back numbers consists of arranging them vertically on the shelves in Princeton files—metal frames that are open at the top and back, with labels giving name and inclusive dates on the front. Magazines more than five years old may be discarded, and space for recent issues made available. Of course, a copy of the *Readers' Guide* must be

on hand, since that valuable tool furnishes a complete index to all back numbers and makes available a wealth of material that cannot be obtained elsewhere.

The choice of newspapers will depend on the use made of them. The local paper will probably be put on the list. One or two of the better newspapers also may be desirable. The *New York Times* and the *Christian Science Monitor* are excellent examples. Much use may be made of these dailies. The Sunday edition of the former is of particular worth.

The Vertical File and the Reserve Shelf

The vertical file, like the periodical collection, supplies the library with much information not available in books. Enormous quantities of free and inexpensive materials are obtained easily, especially if the library subscribes to H. W. Wilson's *Vertical File Service* and receives its monthly catalogue of *Publications Just Released*, and the annual cumulative volumes. Magazines more than five years old should be clipped before they are discarded. Material worthy of preservation is also found occasionally in newspapers.

The value of the contents of the vertical file depends far more upon the discriminating care with which the materials are selected and arranged than upon the intrinsic value of the clippings and pamphlets themselves. A collection of real value may be assembled with little expense if the librarian will devise a method of filing suited to the needs of the school, select only those materials which are of more than passing interest, and discard regularly outdated articles. The file may have different sections. For example, there may be a section on social problems, made up of folders on the various phases of that subject, such as capital punishment, civil liberty, share-croppers, Tennessee Valley Authority, and housing.

Pupils should be encouraged to use the vertical-file materials in the library. If it is necessary to move them from room to room, a careful record of the nature and number of items borrowed should be made. It is a mistake, however, to make a system of borrowing so complicated that use of these materials is discouraged. The value of such a collection depends not on what the librarian puts into it but what the pupils and teachers take out to use. It is far better for the library to lose occasional items than for the possible use to be curtailed by unnecessary restriction. Some teachers may desire to have their own files for their particular courses. Excellent work can be done with this aid, but unnecessary duplication must be avoided.

One of the most important services that the librarian renders to the teacher is the administration of a reserve system, which makes a limited number of books serve a large group of pupils by permitting their use for a restricted period of time. These books are taken from the library collec-

tion and placed on a reserve shelf. This procedure demands close cooperation between teacher and librarian. The teacher must indicate what books he wants placed on the shelf and the length of time for keeping them there. If the teacher has a reading list for a unit or a large division of work, he can place a copy in the hands of the librarian and inform her when the reserve books should be made available to the pupils. When the work is finished, the books will be removed from the shelf and a new list prepared. Such a method enables the librarian to suggest to the teacher new materials that he may have overlooked.

Pupil Motivation and the Book List

The teacher should require a minimum amount of supplementary reading. The amount will vary for the different classes. In an average senior class, about six books per year in addition to the texts should be the minimum requirement. The assigning of a number of books does not end the task. Some of the pupils may be poor readers. The teacher must direct them to the lighter reading. The brighter pupils must be challenged to a more difficult type of literature. Even then the task is not over, for some can read much more than others. Then again, a division must be made between fiction and nonfiction. It may be wise to inform the pupils that in meeting the minimum requirement, not more than half may be fiction. Otherwise, some will read only the fiction.

The teacher must encourage pupils to read. Pupil interest may be fostered in many ways. Undoubtedly, if the amount of reading enters into the grade that the pupil will receive at the end of the course, he will be encouraged to read. However, there are other ways to interest pupils. Teachers, by devious means, can call the attention of pupils to different books and thereby interest them. For example, if the unit is on housing, the teacher can indicate the books that contain accounts of living conditions as found among miners, share-croppers, or other depressed classes. Pupil interest might be awakened by describing some of the conditions mentioned in a book. In American history, when the class is dealing with the exploits of Drake and Hawkins, reference might be made to some daring deed mentioned in a specific book. Again, if the reading program has been well motivated, it will travel on its own momentum, for pupil will tell pupil about the books. Frequently in class the teacher may call on a pupil who has read a certain book to give some of its material that pertains to the lesson and thereby call attention to it. The ways of motivation are many.

The teacher should keep a record of the reading of each pupil. Reference has been made in another chapter to the reading card of the pupil (Chap. XIV). The teacher should look over the card of each one occa-

sionally, to see what he has read. If the teacher has had the pupils make out some sort of book report, he may learn much that will aid him in his library work. He may find out what books interest pupils, which books appeal to certain groups, and which are too hard and should be taken from the list. A careful check on the reading may help him to prepare his list from year to year.

Library Instruction

A most important objective of the social-studies teacher, assisted by the librarian, is the teaching of a skillful use of books and libraries. In many public libraries, the primary objective is to present the patron as quickly as possible with the book or the item of information that he seeks; in the school library, the most important factor is to teach the pupil to serve himself.

A thorough acquaintance with the most important library tools is of paramount importance to the social-studies pupil, especially if he is planning to go to college. To the high-school graduate who is not going to college, the ability to use the facilities of a library will encourage him to take advantage of the public library on which his future intellectual stimulation may depend.

Library instruction may be given in two ways: to individuals or to groups. Individual instruction is an hourly occurrence in the librarian's life. The puzzled expression on a pupil's face as he stands before the card catalogue or looks aimlessly at one reference book after another gives the librarian an opportunity to provide real assistance, not by supplying the necessary bit of information but by employing the more tedious method of showing the pupil how to find it himself. A pupil's request for some information about chain gangs may prompt the librarian to ask, "Have you looked in the *Readers' Guide*?" Probably he has not, and they go together to that valuable tool and locate the references and finally the magazines.

No matter how effective this method may be, it cannot give all the pupils all the information that they should have. A systematic provision for group instruction must supplement the work done with individuals.

One method is to give a series of lessons which has no direct connection with specific curriculum content. It is scheduled arbitrarily to suit the convenience of librarian and teachers and presents the skills that they consider important in regular logical order. This unit of work is usually presented in connection with an English or a social-studies course, or with some other course that every pupil must take.

The other method of group instruction is integrated with the subject matter of a course and grows out of a need arising in a class project or unit. Some phases of the use of the library may be thus presented in an

English class; others, in social studies; and still others, in connection with the study of languages, science, or mathematics. The work is given at a time when the pupil is eager to receive it. Instruction of this type may be presented either by the teacher or by the librarian.

A very successful plan may combine the library instruction with a unit of work in social studies or some other subject. The interest of the pupils has been thoroughly aroused by the problem at hand—a unit on French civilization and culture, a study of American prison conditions, or a topic on the renaissance of the Irish theater. As different kinds of materials are needed, the explanation of their most efficient use becomes a natural part of the class procedure; and when the work is completed, the pupil has become acquainted with the tools of the library.

The librarian and the teachers should decide which procedure is best suited to the needs of their particular situation. If a plan for integrated instruction can be made that will give each pupil a reasonable comprehensive knowledge, it will be the most effective and successful system in most cases. If, on the other hand, local conditions make such integration impractical, it is better to give a separate unit unrelated to the classwork than to present a smattering of instruction which may be confusing and inadequate.

No matter what method is used to impart the knowledge, there are definite procedures about which every student should be informed. Before a plan of instruction can be formulated, it is necessary to determine the knowledge of library skills that the pupils have already acquired. A diagnostic test, such as Lulu Ruth Reed's *Test on the Use of the Library for High Schools* (Chicago Planograph Corporation, Chicago, Ill.), given to members of the entering class, will disclose the extent and effectiveness of any training in the junior high or elementary schools from which the pupils have come.¹ It is futile to base instruction upon what they should have learned. All pupils who are attending the school for the first time should be brought to the library at the earliest possible opportunity and given an orientation lesson, including a tour of the room, an explanation of the procedure necessary in order to check out a book, and a discussion of the rules governing the use of the library. A floor plan in outline may be mimeographed and distributed to each pupil, with instructions to locate and label the various kinds of library equipment and materials. If the book collection has been arranged in any way that deviates from the natural order of the Dewey decimal classification, it is especially important to

¹ HORACE T. MORSE and GEORGE H. McCUNE, *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills* (National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C., 1940) may also be used. Tests may also be found in Mary P. Douglas, *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook* (American Library Association, Chicago, Ill., 1941).

acquaint the pupil with the arrangement peculiar to that library. The completed chart should be checked for accuracy by teacher or librarian and kept in the pupil's notebook for future reference.

The pupil's ability to profit from the library will be very much restricted until he understands how to use the card catalogue. Instruction in the use of this tool should be given at the earliest possible moment. The pupil should be told that the catalogue bears the same relationship to the library as an index bears to a book, and that the information regarding the author, title, and subject of each library book is placed on cards because that method makes it easy for items to be added to or taken from the card. Enlarged copies of sample cards will be helpful in illustrating the difference in author, title, subject, and cross-reference cards and in interpreting the various abbreviations. The reason for including on the card such items as date, publisher, and number of pages should be explained.

A discussion of the information found on catalogue cards leads directly to the subject of the Dewey decimal classification, and the two items may be explained consecutively. If the pupil can be introduced to this system by an explanation that reveals it as the very logical, intelligent, and practical arrangement that it is, he may be saved the confusion of regarding it as a puzzling and unintelligible maze of figures.

It may be profitable for some groups of pupils to memorize at least the ten main divisions, although the display of explanatory posters and labels makes this unnecessary. It is valuable, however, to acquaint them with the method that Melvil Dewey employed in devising the classification. He followed the principle of proceeding from the general to the specific, from the abstract to the concrete; and the Dewey classification, beginning with the 000's or General Works proceeds to the most abstract thing of which Dewey knew, the human mind. Thus the 100's are called Philosophy and include such subjects as psychology. Since man's first thought is to turn to a higher being, the next class, the 200's, is Religion. He then turns to his fellow man, and the 300's are concerned with Social Science. He wishes to communicate with them, and the 400 class is Philology. He examines the world about him, and the 500 group is Science. He uses his skill to improve his environment, and we find that the 600 classification is termed Useful Arts, followed by the 700's, the Fine Arts. He records his activity in the 800's, or Literature; and the cycle having been completed, we find that he has made History, which is the 900 classification.

The principle of proceeding from the general to the specific can be illustrated also in examining a number like 621.384, which is the Dewey decimal classification for Radio. The 600's are Useful Arts; the 620's Engineering. This large group is again subdivided, and the 621's refer to Machinery. This heading becomes more specific when a number beyond

the decimal is added, and we have 621.3 or Electricity. The subdivision continues to 621.38, which is Communication, and finally 621.384, or Radio.

If teachers and pupils understand the principles of the Dewey decimal system, they will use it with greater ease and satisfaction. If they learn the numbers of the classifications that interest them most, they may save valuable time by going directly to the shelves to locate their material. Boys who have a taste for astronomy will find all the books on that subject under the number 520 and may find material of interest in the neighboring related groups, 510, or Mathematics, and 530, or Physics. A visit to a strange library will not be puzzling if old friends may be thus located on the shelves.

A most important library tool to be brought to the attention of the pupils is the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. The publisher of this very useful index, the H. W. Wilson Company, has sets of sample pages of this and other Wilson publications, such as the *Book Review Digest* and the *Cumulative Book Index*, that are available for free distribution. If each pupil may have in his hands a copy of the same entry, the identification of such items as title, author, magazine, volume, and date, with their respective abbreviations, can be made thoroughly and quickly. It is important that the pupils actually make use of the *Readers' Guide* soon after the explanation has been made. The pupil should have access to a list of magazines to which the school subscribes; otherwise he may lose valuable time noting references that will not be available.

The efficient use of dictionaries, encyclopedias, and atlases should be taught to all pupils as early in the year as possible. If the library has a variety of such materials, a comparison of the particular features of each should be made. Every student should become acquainted with standard reference books. The presentation of several reference books at the same time is apt to be a confusing experience to the pupils. It is far better for the teacher to await an opportunity to demonstrate a real use for the book, in connection with the work of the class. When the moment arrives, the reference book may be borrowed from the library and brought to the classroom.

The library instruction may include information about the physical make-up and arrangement of a book, a discussion of good citizenship in the library, the relation of the school library to the public library, and a consideration of the criteria used in selecting books for a personal library. If note taking and bibliography making are not included as a part of some other course, they should receive attention also.

The school librarian may wish to supply her teachers with many books that she cannot afford to buy for the library because of limited funds, inadequate space, or the transitory nature of the request. Probably a copy

of almost any book that her faculty has requested may be borrowed from the state library, the local public library, or the libraries of near-by universities and municipalities. Such interlibrary loans are of inestimable value to schools of limited resources and should be used.

Summary

The modern high-school library represents the combined efforts of the school teachers, administrators, pupils, and librarian to provide the school with the facilities for reading, reference, and research in surroundings that are attractive and orderly. In the selection of material for the library, teacher and librarian should work in close cooperation. Most schools have a very limited budget for books, and time must be spent in deciding which ones are most needed. Some of the material of the library pertains to the entire school; some is for the social studies in general; other material is associated with a particular course. The library should be built on courses in the school. The teacher should be thoroughly familiar with the library and utilize what it contains for the subjects that he teaches. The selection of new material will depend on the size of the budget in the light of the needs and interests of the pupils.

The teacher should plan for as wide a reading list as circumstances provide. To do this capably, he should be a wide reader himself and be familiar with the books published in his field. There are many aids that will help him become acquainted with the new books. The present-day emphasis on current problems demands a good selection of magazines and newspapers for the library. Much free and inexpensive material may be made available to the pupil through the use of the vertical file. A reserve shelf for the books of a teacher's reading list greatly facilitates the library work for a particular course. The worth of a library depends on its use. Teachers should encourage pupils to read. There are many ways to motivate reading. A check on pupil reading will help the teacher to evaluate the books and will aid him in future selections. Pupils should be taught how to use the library. This may be done in various ways. Many books not in the library may be borrowed through interlibrary loans.

Questions

1. Why does the library occupy an increasingly important place in the social-studies program of today?
2. What are the essential differences between a library and a study hall?
3. What considerations are involved in allocating book funds to different departments in the school?
4. Work out a book list on a unit or large division of work, and indicate what contribution each book on the list will make to the study.
5. Take any reference book and indicate what use you could make of it in your particular subject.

6. Indicate the various aids whereby the teacher may become acquainted with the literature in his field.

7. What use should be made of magazines and newspapers in the high school?

8. In which way may the vertical file become a valuable aid in the teaching of the social studies?

9. Name some ways whereby the teacher may encourage pupils to read.

10. Why should a record be kept of pupil reading?

11. Which do you think is the best way to give library instructions? Give reasons for your answers.

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CHAPTER XIV

WRITTEN WORK AND OUTSIDE READING

Written Work in the Social Studies

Carefully assigned written work can be a potent aid in achieving the aims of history and the other social studies, as well as the general objectives of education. Such exercises should stimulate interest in the content of the course and create a desire in the student to learn more about the materials being studied. Content and purpose should be considered when selecting types of written work. The purpose may be to produce or enrich understandings, to give opportunities for expressions of opinions and attitudes, to develop such skills as making outlines, preparing reports and term papers, and to organize, compare, and summarize the materials of the course. Pupil interest, however, must be given prime consideration in the development of plans for such work.

The amount and character of written work depend largely on the method of instruction used. Much more written work will naturally be expected if the method is supervised study than if it is the socialized recitation. Because of the motor and visual activities afforded by written work, as well as many other advantages which are mentioned in this chapter, its judicious use makes it a necessary and an excellent aid in teaching the social studies.

Written work in the social studies has frequently been criticized because of the large amount required by some teachers, with the resultant low standards for such activity. With the recent development of methods aimed to reach the individual pupils, it is natural that the amount of writing has increased; but there is no excuse for low standards. Wisely chosen written work has great educational value, for it is an aid to organized thinking. It plays a part in the pupil's mastery of the subject and is often the best means of judging a pupil's ability and his progress.

Written Work in the Junior High School

In the junior high school, all written work should be very informal. There is little place at this stage of instruction for elaborate themes and term papers. Such activity in the junior high school usually resolves itself into little more than the repetition of the textbook or reference books. Instead, habits of reading should be emphasized and developed, and a train-

ing in simple, informal written work should be given. In this way, the foundation will be laid for the intensive and formal written work of the senior high school.

In the study of history, pupils in the junior high school should be assigned and encouraged to write informal imaginary letters, editorials, diaries, and advertisements. For example, an imaginary letter written by a merchant in the American colonies to a friend in England, telling of conditions in the colonies in 1700, 1750, 1763, 1771, or any other date, can be made the medium to show how much progress the pupil has made in the subject and his understanding of certain phases of it. The same is true with regard to the writing of editorials denouncing the wrong and praising the right of a particular topic of any period. The writing of a diary of a prominent personage and the working out of colonial advertisements also add interest and value to the work of pupils studying history in the junior-high-school grades.

The written work required of pupils in the junior high school should include simple themes, which constitute the first steps toward the more elaborate ones of the senior high school. Training in the making of simple outlines and briefs; the summarizing or "boiling down" of material read and studied; the writing of simple plays, pageants, and poetry may also be included. These must all be simply and carefully done. The teacher of the social studies has the right to demand good English and properly arranged work, together with correct punctuation and spelling. If these are required, a solid foundation will be laid for the advanced work of the pupils. A notebook may be kept by the pupils, and instruction given in its preparation. Pictures and cartoons either drawn or cut out from periodicals and newspapers, graphs, charts, and tables should find a place in an orderly, well-kept notebook. Pupils of junior-high-school age usually enjoy the work entailed in keeping a notebook or scrapbook. The teacher, however, must carefully direct this activity, stressing especially the organization of the notebook and training the pupils to discriminate in the selection of materials to be included in it.

Written Work in the Senior High School

In the senior high school, the written work of the social studies should be more formal and more difficult than in the junior high school. In subjects that require a great deal of reading, it is relatively easy for pupils to gather much ill-digested information, but it is very difficult to induce them to think deeply and seriously. Written work aids the pupils to arrange their work logically and coherently and also brings out important points. To this end, carefully made outlines, themes or term papers, book reviews, summaries, and notebooks may be required.

The Outline or Analysis. The ability to make an accurate outline merits praise. An outline is essentially an analysis written in definite form. It may be made on a lecture, a unit of work, an entire course, a chapter in a particular book, or an entire book. The chief object of an outline is to present the fundamental ideas of the oral or written data. A good outline is not merely a skeleton; nor is it simply the hasty copying of topic sentences or subheadings from a chapter or a book. It is the interpretation of thought by an arrangement of short sentences or statements. It is the pupil's interpretation of the thought of another. If properly done, outlines can be of great value in the preparation of term papers and also for reviews, especially in preparation for examinations.

The Term Paper. Before leaving high school, each pupil should know exactly how to write a formal theme or term paper. Not more than one should be required for each course in the social studies. Careful directions must be given the pupils as to how they are to proceed in the choosing of the topic, the methods of gathering the data, the making of the outline, and the determination of the content as well as the form. Emphasis should be placed on the technique of writing the term paper.

Complete instructions must be given the pupils. After the topic has been chosen, the preliminary survey of materials and the method of securing the proper references must be clearly understood by the pupils. Means of note taking and of organizing and writing the theme must be carefully explained. Instructions regarding the form of the paper should include its length, stated in the number of words, and its mechanical form. The pupils should know definitely that they are to use paper of a certain size; that they must use one side of the sheet only, indenting each paragraph and leaving a margin on the left-hand side of the paper; that the title page should contain the title or topic, the name of the course and the teacher, together with the pupil's name and the date of presentation; that an outline, carefully prepared, should follow the title page; and that pages should be numbered and fastened together with a clip. Instructions should be carefully given regarding the correct use of footnotes, the inclusion of quotations, the appendices, maps, plans, graphs, illustrations, and the alphabetically arranged bibliography. The last may be placed after the title page or at the end of the paper and should include a complete list of the books actually consulted. Each reference should consist of the name of the author and the title of the book underlined, together with the date and place of publication.

These specific instructions should be mimeographed, if possible, and given to the pupils to be placed in their notebooks for future reference; but the teacher should carefully explain from time to time, as the work of drawing up the term paper progresses, the important points in the list of

instructions. The elaborate term paper should not be required until the last year or two of high school and should represent the entire historical training that the pupil has received. It is true that the term papers of many pupils will be of a low caliber. It is not the work of the teacher to get each pupil to reach an arbitrary standard. His task is to see that each pupil has produced a paper according to his ability. Much should be expected from the bright pupil; appreciation should be shown for the efforts of the poorer ones.

The Book Review. The writing of a book review is an aid to teaching the social studies and an essential part of the pupil's training. The reviewing of a book involves a careful analysis and a general estimate of it. After a careful reading of the book, the reviewer should note the chief propositions it presents, the purpose of the author in writing the book, whether or not the writer has succeeded in his purpose, whether the writer has used facts or abstract reasoning or both, and to what degree the reasoning of the author agrees with that of the reviewer's experiences. The pupil should express his reactions succinctly and plainly. He should not err in the direction of hero worship or go to the other extreme of chronic destructive criticism. In making adverse criticisms, the pupil must be cautious; for the author usually is well informed on his subject, while the pupil usually is not. The pupil, however, should express freely his reactions, for they represent his observations and experience. Such exercises as the writing of book reviews train the observation, reasoning power, and judgment of pupils. It can easily be seen that a good review requires deep thinking. Many pupils do not possess much ability in this respect. If asked for a book review, they will do little more than summarize what they have read. However, the teacher should take time in training each pupil to the best of his ability. He should point out specifically what is desired in a review and should read good examples to the class, showing why they are good. Among the better pupils, he will get a satisfactory response for his labor.

The Summary and the Digest. To summarize well requires skill, because it involves the condensing and paraphrasing of the ideas of others in one's own terms and language. A summary is different from a digest or abstract, in that the digest or abstract is a condensation of an article or a subject in the language of the author of the article so far as possible. Both summaries and digests require the processes of selection and condensation. Summarizing, however, affords a valuable training in written expression and also in the enlargement of the vocabulary, since it involves the choice of the right words. Summarizing is an important activity of the learning process, and its value in all walks of life is evident.

The Notebook. In the senior high school, note taking should play an important part of the notebook work. Some time should be spent on de-

veloping a simple technique of note taking, because such work is invaluable for fixing ideas in the minds of pupils, encouraging initiative, and developing a sense of relative values as opposed to a mere chronological sense. Notes on lectures and readings should be kept on separate sheets of paper in a loose-leaf notebook. The habit of careful and intelligent note taking can be developed if the teacher lectures occasionally, giving the pupils clear and sufficient directions beforehand. Few notes should be required on the pupil's readings, but a record of all reading should be kept. The items of the notebook can be illustrated by direct quotations and other source material, as well as by graphs, charts, maps, pictures, and cartoons.

The teacher must direct the pupils in the honest and skillful use of notebooks. The use of such aids in the senior high school has been criticized because they require too much class time, because they may become mechanical and therefore be of little educational value, because too much time is consumed, and because in outside work there is the opportunity of borrowing notebooks in order to copy. These criticisms may be overcome by the proper use of the notebook under the careful guidance of the teacher. No class time should be given to uneducative copying; the teacher should stimulate the pupils to careful work, allowing for originality rather than prescribing minutely the arrangement of the notebook. Work to be done outside school should be chosen with discrimination and should be carefully checked. Notebooks should be corrected and graded. It is better to require a small amount of work well done and checked than a voluminous amount that is unchecked and perhaps carelessly done. A certain amount of directions for keeping a notebook is necessary for the pupils. Directions should include specifications for the size and type of notebook, the loose-leaf notebook of standard size being the best. Specific instructions should be given that all notes be written in ink; that each subject be begun on a new page; that notes be brief, the important points only being written; and that a margin be left on each page and each paragraph be indented. Mimeographed instructions should be supplemented by oral directions, in order to be sure that the pupils clearly understand what they are to do.

The problem of grading the written work of pupils is a difficult and serious one. Secondary-school teachers as a rule have too many pupils to teach and are therefore usually overworked. Under this condition, the task of grading a large amount of written work becomes laborious and often impossible. No more of this activity, however, should be assigned than the teacher can grade. All such work assigned should be corrected, graded, and returned. The practice of some teachers of not returning the papers and of having the pupils assume that the teacher has looked over them,

when he has not, is at least dishonest and is not conducive to diligent work by the pupils. Work that is worth assigning should certainly be worth grading, and pupils should understand that the marks given will count in the determination of their final grades.

This may sound like an impossible task to the beginning teacher. To grade about one hundred and fifty papers besides tests and other work in a short time does seem a rather large order. However, the teacher soon develops a technique in marking papers. No close grading is necessary. An A, B, C, and failure rating is sufficient, or the papers may be marked excellent, good, fair, and poor. Some teachers have only two marks: satisfactory and unsatisfactory. The chief aim is to have the pupils realize that their work has been evaluated and recorded.

The Social Studies and Spoken and Written English

The problem as to how far the teacher of the social studies is responsible for well-spoken and well-written English in his classes is a hard one to solve. In his struggle to insist on the use of pure language, the American teacher faces difficulties that are not encountered by teachers in European countries and elsewhere. This is partly because many thousands of pupils of foreign-born parents who live in the United States still speak a foreign language in their home environment. These pupils bring into the classroom many foreign idioms, some incorrect English, and much slang. This has resulted in lowering the standard of English among all pupils.

Since the main objective of American education is to attain competent and worthy citizenship, it is evident that some attention should be paid to English teaching in the social studies and that pure language should be insisted on, as far as possible. A good citizen should speak and write his native or adopted tongue fairly well. Granted that the teacher of the social studies is responsible to some degree for the spoken and written language in his classes, the question arises as to what he can do to aid in eradicating slang and the incorrect use of English.

Much good or evil has been done in the fixing of habits of language before the pupil reaches high school. Recognizing this, the teacher must emphasize the need of speaking good English at all times. The pupil must be taught that much of his success in the future in business or profession depends to a great extent upon the correct use of language. Most of the various methods and procedures used from day to day constitute an excellent medium for drill in oral expression. The teacher must insist that in all replies to questions, in floor talks, oral reports, debates, and explanations of blackboard work, only the best forms of language expression be used. It is perhaps needless to state that the teacher himself should set an example

in speaking only good English and should never use poor pronunciation or vulgar phrases.

Written work must also play an important part in promoting correct expression in English. Most teachers of the social studies do not agree that English construction, grammar, and spelling should be considered in grading written tests and exercises in the social studies. However, if two pupils achieve the same results in a history test, for example, but one paper contains excellent English and spelling and the other is greatly deficient in English and spelling, should both be given the same credit? This question has been argued from many points of view, but with no conclusive results. The general practice is to consider only the subject matter and to pay no heed to the manner in which an examination is written.

In all written work, however, the teacher of the social studies has the opportunity to insist that good English always be used. Plenty of time should be given pupils for all written work. Themes, papers, and notebooks must be corrected and returned, with the admonition that the pupil must not permit the same errors in English to occur again. If many pupils make the same error, time could profitably be spent in class for correcting it.

Other solutions for improving written work in the social studies have been attempted by means of cooperation between the history and English departments of many schools. Separate grades have been given the same theme or paper by the two departments, one for history, the other for English. Attempts have been made to teach history and English together, and various plans have been worked out to this end.

The Importance of Supplementary and Collateral Reading

Outside reading should be a vital factor in all the work of the social studies, in both the junior high school and the senior high school. Time and opportunity must be given to pupils to enlarge the scope of their reading beyond the textbooks required in classwork. One or more textbooks should be exhaustively read, studied, and analyzed, but to this core of essential facts must be added a wider range of reading.

The pupil should understand that there are several types of reading: (1) Reading for understanding. In this type, the pupil reads in order to understand all the ideas contained in his reading. (2) Reading for the purpose of memorization. The pupil reads and rereads in order to fix associations and to secure immediate recall. (3) Reading for the purpose of locating specific information. The pupil skims through a body of material for the purpose of locating the necessary data. (4) Rapid reading. In order to expand his general knowledge and build up a background, the pupil must read much material. Most supplementary and collateral read-

ing would be classified under this form of reading. (5) Reading for enjoyment and pleasure. Such reading appeals to the pupil's emotions as well as to his intellect, as for example, the reading of historical novels and poems.

Many advantages are to be gained from the proper use of collateral, supplementary, source, and fiction reading. Good reading habits and tastes are developed; a colorful understanding of the past may be achieved; and on the basis of relatively wide reading, opportunities are afforded for developing an intelligent critical attitude, for stimulating independent judgment, and for training in independent reading and thinking. During the period of adolescence, when interest can readily be aroused, when good habits can be developed, when attitudes can easily be built up, when the capacity for forming ideals is strong, and when the mind is wide open to impressions, the natural desire for reading should be skillfully directed and the foundations laid for the wise use of books.

The Selection and Amount of Suitable Reading Material

Many problems arise in connection with outside reading. That of selecting suitable material is one that the teacher must solve himself; for the reading assigned depends upon the progress made by the pupils, and it must also be adapted to the needs of each individual in the class. In the junior high school, the amount of outside reading should be small and easy to comprehend. Emphasis should be laid on developing the details of technique. The ability of the pupils in silent reading should be measured; and where deficiencies exist in the rate of reading and in comprehension, remedial measures should be applied. Diagnostic reading tests may be used for this purpose. A pupil's rate of reading and his degree of comprehension are influenced by the type of material read, the difficulty of it, and the purpose of the pupil. Pupils should be taught to make good outlines and summaries of their intensive reading but should not be required to do much written work in connection with extensive reading; they should understand the mechanical make-up of books, including the purpose of footnotes and the meaning of footnote abbreviations, and also the use of the table of contents and the index. In this way, the basis for the more difficult work in reading in the later years of the high school will be laid.

The reading suggested by the textbook, usually found at the end of each chapter, may be made the starting point for outside reading. Most of the best texts in the various social studies give a list of reading references, and these usually have been carefully chosen. The school library or the social-studies laboratory generally sets the limit as to the variety of reference books that may be used. In the cities and larger towns, however,

pupils should be encouraged to secure books from the public libraries. The increasing use of public libraries by high-school pupils attests to the extended use of supplementary and collateral reading in the various subjects.

The amount of reading to be done in the various social studies cannot be definitely set down. The grade, the type of pupils, and the nature of the course must be considered. In various high schools all over the country, the amount of collateral reading required varies from none to several thousand pages each term. A certain minimum amount of reading should be set for each week. This should be assigned at the beginning of the week, or, better still, an outline of all the work should be given the pupil at the outset of the semester's work or when a unit is begun. A minimum amount of outside reading may be assigned, but pupils should be encouraged to do unassigned reading suggested by the teacher, the choice of a wide variety of reading in the various subjects being given them. Such reading is excellent for the bright pupils especially.

Much has been said for and against the use of source material in the high school. Ever since the source method sprang into use for a brief space of time in the secondary school during the latter part of the nineteenth century, sources have been used to some extent in teaching history and other social studies in high schools. Much enthusiasm was exhibited, about the beginning of the twentieth century, when this method, based almost entirely on the study of source material, spread rapidly into many sections of the country. In a few years, it passed out of existence, chiefly because it had been copied from methods used in colleges and universities, which were too difficult for high-school pupils. However, the movement resulted in the printing of a number of source books, readings, and translations designed to be used in the schools; so that today, with the steady increase of such material, many sources are available in printed form.

Much value can be secured from the study of sources if the work is not overdone. In the junior high school, the chief values of the use of sources are for illustrative purposes, in creating atmosphere, and in giving reality to the subject. An interesting passage from a speech of Patrick Henry or Daniel Webster, selections from the diary of Columbus, and Marquette's account of his voyage down the Mississippi illuminate and make American history real. Extracts from the Domesday Book or the Magna Carta do the same for English history. Such passages may be assigned as outside reading or may be read in class, written into notebooks, or put on the blackboard to be discussed by the class.

In the senior high school, sources may be used to show the processes by which the historian gathers his material and writes history; to illustrate the difficulties of conflicting evidence; to point out the danger of spurious sources, of bias, and of prejudice; and to indicate the ease with which

misinformation can be circulated. But even in the most advanced work of the high school, the use of sources should be supplementary to all other work. The spirit of research should be encouraged, but little original research can be done or should be attempted in the high school. Work on the sources, however, encourages close reading and the selection of essentials. It develops the powers of criticism and judgment and teaches the pupil not to be enslaved by the printed page.

The Use of Historical Fiction in Teaching the Social Studies

There is much disagreement as to the value of historical fiction in teaching the social studies. Many teachers recommend it enthusiastically; others regard it as a dangerous teaching aid because it might give the pupil a distorted view of history. It is true that there are advantages and disadvantages in the use of any type of historical fiction, but the advantages outweigh by far the disadvantages.

In a discussion of the use of historical fiction in the high school, it is first necessary to discriminate between good and poor material. Historical novels vary in the plan and style in which they are written and also in the accuracy and authenticity of the history used as a background or as the main theme. It is beyond the scope of this book to suggest which historical novels are best for use in high school and which should not be used. Such lists have been worked out by groups of teachers and by others.¹ It is necessary here only for the teacher to recognize that historical fiction may be good or bad and that therefore discrimination must be made.

The right use of the best historical fiction may make the study of history vivid and real; it may give the pupil an understanding of past customs, manners, beliefs, and points of view; it may create and stimulate an interest for historical study; it may teach a sense of discrimination; and it may provide a good use for leisure time. The opponents of the use of historical fiction in the teaching of the social studies claim that the picture of history that it creates is often untrue, that historical events are not always depicted accurately, that such fiction does not aid pupils in developing a taste for history, and that history in preference to historical fiction provides for a worthy use of leisure time.

Although the writers of historical fiction do not claim an accurate presentation for their work, the best historical novels do not create pictures that are grotesque and untrue. Some of the novels of Sir Walter Scott, for instance, although containing historical inaccuracies, give pictures that breathe the atmosphere and life of the past, which cannot be obtained in any other way. If good historical novels will aid the pupil to obtain a fairly vivid idea of the spirit of a past age, then their use is worth while.

¹ For bibliographies of historical fiction, see pp. 335-336.

The inaccuracies of historical fiction may be counteracted by the pupil's knowledge of the phase of history that he is studying. It is not asking too much of the pupil to require that he pick out the obvious errors of a good novel he is reading in the particular field of history he is studying, thus checking the novel by reference to the text. This corroboration achieves one of the aims of reading historical fiction; namely, it develops a taste for the study of history. The spirit of the past that a pupil obtains from reading historical fiction cannot be destroyed simply because he may find slight discrepancies between the book and the history upon which it is based. As to the argument that pupils cannot develop a taste for history through the use of historical fiction, experience answers otherwise. Even so eminent a historian as Leopold von Ranke developed his interest in historical research through the reading of historical romances. He found by comparing history with fiction that "truth was more interesting and beautiful than romance." Such fiction can result in developing in the life of the pupil a taste for history.

An important part of the duty of the teacher of the social studies is to make history more real and less vague. If historical fiction can aid in achieving this realism, then it should not be neglected. The right kind of historical literature can make history live. Historical fiction, then, should not be condemned as a whole. The problem for the teacher is one of selecting the best type of material and using it in the right way as an aid to teaching history.

Certain novels may be used to advantage in the nonhistorical studies. Many have even played a part in shaping history. The period of muckraking in American history affords an example of this; for many books, including novels, laid bare corrupt and putrid conditions in political, social, civic, and economic life and were instrumental in bringing about better conditions. Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle* is an example of this type of work. The better type of this kind of fiction should be introduced as supplementary reading into all the social studies as often as possible.

Reading Difficulties of Pupils

Reading constitutes one of the most important sources of learning and therefore the pupil's reading difficulties are the greatest obstacle to real learning. The successful student must possess the ability to read effectively, and it is necessary for the teacher to give considerable attention to the reading abilities of his pupils. Despite the increasing use of visual and other aids, the pupil depends upon the printed page for most of his information. The growth of the school population in recent years has naturally resulted in an increase of poor readers.

Reading deficiencies may be the result of different causes. Some of

these might be traced to physical or emotional defects which may require remedial treatment or even medical or psychiatric care. In some secondary schools, plans have been developed to aid defective readers—after their difficulties have been diagnosed—through corrective reading classes or through special methods. But even after these difficult cases are screened, a number of poor readers remain and their deficient reading habits can be attributed to indifference or a lack of interest rather than to any inherent physical or emotional cause.

Many approaches can be used for the purpose of stimulating poor and indifferent readers. Often, failure of the teacher to motivate the work is responsible for the pupil's lack of enthusiasm. Reading readiness is important in the secondary school, and the pupil's curiosity should be stimulated as far as possible. There should be a goal or purpose for each assignment, and the reading materials should be understandable to the pupil. Motivation of reading can often be accomplished through careful previews or introductions to lessons and units. Of course, visual and auditory aids, field trips and excursions, and every other possible activity should be utilized to bring reality to the abstractness of the printed page. The academic nature of the traditional program in history and the other social studies often discourages wholehearted pupil participation. A certain amount of study discipline and memory work will always be a part of learning, but through student participation in planning and in suggesting problems and activities, motivation can be achieved, with the result that the reading of pupils will be greatly improved.

In developing pupil interest, preaching and praising the virtues of certain books or giving extra credits for reports on reading are often not enough. Enthusiasm for the work—as is usually the case—must flow from the teacher. He must know many books thoroughly and must be acquainted with many more. He must love them, talk about them, recommend them spontaneously. No method of stimulating interest is more successful than incidental quotation and citation. He may read brief excerpts, such as exciting incidents, realistic character portrayals, or paradoxical statements, in order to whet the pupil's appetite for more. If the teacher is enthusiastic and sincere, he will inspire his pupils and bring about their interest in reading.

Many devices may be used to create interest in outside reading. A "Watch this Spot" on the bulletin board, devoted to advertising the qualities of outstanding books, can prove effective. Pupils enrolled in art classes may be encouraged to make posters and others to write copy for this purpose. Round-table discussions on books are often powerful incentives to outside reading. Another effective method is the dramatization of short, exciting scenes from important books. In various ways such reading can

be motivated. The alert teacher will provide his pupils with opportunities to explore and develop their reading tastes, which may well carry beyond the school years.

Testing Pupils on Outside Reading

The checking of supplementary and collateral reading is a difficult problem. Various methods of checking are in use at the present time. Written tests, written reports, oral tests, oral class reports, class discussions, briefs, outlines, summaries, digests, and notebooks have been made the medium of testing the pupil's work in outside reading. The relatively large amount of reading that should be done in the social studies makes all these various methods of testing rather burdensome to both the pupil and the teacher. One of the best ways of checking is by means of reading cards. Many schools have them printed. The card includes places for the name of the pupil, the date, the reference read, the name of the author, the title of the book, and the exact number of pages. Room should be provided on each card for the pupil to write a few lines giving briefly an idea of the subject of his reading and his reactions. Pupils may turn in their cards every week or every month, or else they may keep them until the end of the term. The practice of turning them in every week, so that the teacher can check them and then return them, is the best method and is in use in many schools today. Another means of checking often used is the book report. The following information is usually required: pupil's name, date of report, date when book was read, name of author, title of book, number of pages in the book, number of pages read, brief summary, and pupil's reactions to the book. If the school has a mimeographing machine, forms can be made on standard-size paper so that pupils may place an account of each reading on one sheet.

Time should be taken occasionally in the classroom to hear individual reports on assigned readings. These should not be read, but the pupils should be encouraged instead to speak without notes. Supplementary or collateral reading assigned to the entire class can be made the basis of a worth-while discussion. By such methods, the teacher can get an idea of the general efficiency of the outside reading done by the class as a whole, as well as by certain individual pupils in the class. Naturally, the teacher will call on those who he knows have read certain books that pertain to the unit under discussion, in order that they might make an added contribution. For example, if the teacher was referring to certain economic conditions in the country and knew that one of the pupils had read about that topic, it would be the best type of teaching to have that pupil give his reactions. Indeed, if this is extensively done, the teacher can get a good idea of the effect of the reading.

Summary

The amount and character of written work in the social studies are conditioned by the method of instruction used. Written work carefully assigned and well accomplished is of value because it plays a part in the pupil's mastery of the subject and is a means of judging a pupil's ability and progress. Written work should be very informal in the junior high school and may include imaginary letters and editorials, simple themes, outlines, briefs, summaries, plays, and poetry, as well as elementary notebooks. In the senior high school, the work should be more formal and difficult. It may include more elaborate outlines or analyses, book reviews, advanced summaries, digests, notebooks, and a term paper. One of the difficulties connected with written work is the problem of grading, for secondary-school teachers usually have too many pupils to teach. A good rule to follow is that no more written work should be assigned than a teacher can grade. Another problem confronting the teacher of the social studies concerns his responsibility for well-spoken and well-written English in his classes. Although many plans have been tried for securing a high standard of English in social-studies classes, the general practice in grading examinations and other written work is to consider only subject matter and to pay no heed to the English employed. In all classwork, however, the teacher of the social studies should demand a high standard of English.

In recent years, new methods and procedures have produced a new conception regarding the quantity and quality of reading necessary in the social studies. Such aims as the development of good reading habits and tastes, the stimulation of judgment, and training in independent reading and thinking have resulted in provision for wide reading in courses in the social studies. Among the problems connected with a reading program are the selection of suitable reading material, the amount of outside reading that should be required, and the use of source material. There is disagreement as to the value of historical fiction. The right use of the best historical fiction can make the study of history and other social studies real and vivid. Pupil interest in outside reading must be cultivated. Enthusiasm must flow from the teacher, and certain devices to create interest in outside reading should be used from time to time.

Another difficult problem is the checking of supplementary and collateral reading. Many schemes are in use at the present time. The reading card, which is turned in periodically by the pupils, is widely used. Outside reading assigned to the entire class can occasionally be made the basis of class discussion, whereby the teacher can get an idea of the general efficiency of the work of the class in this respect. An effective reading program requires the use of a variety of references, which in the cities and larger

towns can be secured from public libraries if the school library is deficient. In many smaller communities, however, which do not have good library facilities, the problem of working out an adequate reading program is more difficult.

Questions

1. Give examples of the kinds of effective written work that may be required in the junior high school.
2. Work out a plan of written work for junior and senior high school, beginning with simple work and proceeding to the more intensive and formal work of the upper grades.
3. Distinguish between the use of the notebook in junior and senior high school.
4. Discuss the problem of grading written work.
5. Give arguments for and against requiring a formal term paper before a pupil leaves high school.
6. In grading an examination in history, should a pupil be penalized for misspelling words and for using incorrect English? Give reasons.
7. Why is so much emphasis laid upon outside reading at the present time?
8. Distinguish between supplementary and collateral reading.
9. Discuss the selection of different types of reading material.
10. How should source material be used in teaching history?
11. Give the arguments for and against the use of historical fiction in teaching the social studies.
12. How may interest be developed in outside reading?
13. Cite the various means of testing or checking supplementary and collateral reading. Which is the best means?

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CHAPTER XV

VISUAL AIDS TO TEACHING

Making the Social Studies Concrete and Real

Teachers of the social studies have a wealth of illustrative material at their command which they may use to make their work possess life, color, and interest. It is true that some of the means used in the elementary school will have to be cast aside as soon as the pupil reaches the junior high school, because changes are taking place in his life, a fact that sets the adolescent youth, with his new personal consciousness of himself, apart from the child of the elementary school. Such concrete aids to the imagination as paper folding, paper cutting, the use of cardboard and corrugated paper, the use of clay or plasticine, and the employment of the sand table will generally have to be disregarded as a means of making events or ideas a living reality to the pupil. Many other aids, however, can be used to advantage in order to make the social studies concrete and real.

Writers in professional journals and speakers on educational subjects have often restricted their discussions of visual aids to the techniques and values of the projection of films. As a result, there is danger that a restrictive concept of visual education may arise. In many cases, an impression is left that visual teaching can be accomplished only through the use of different kinds of films. Actually, every type of teaching device by which the pupil learns through the sense of vision is a visual aid.

Within the scope of visual education, therefore, must be included textbooks, manuals, pamphlets, bulletins, and periodicals, as well as maps, globes, charts, diagrams, graphs, pictures, drawings, cartoons, museum collections, and models. In well-balanced teaching programs, every type of visual aid should be used as far as it is necessary to do so. In planning the course, the unit, and the daily lesson, each visual aid should be taken into consideration and applied wherever essential. This is necessary if high levels of teaching and learning are to be achieved.

The Use of Maps in the Teaching of History and Other Social Studies

All educators and teachers agree that maps should play an important part in the teaching of history. The chief purpose of the use of maps in the study of history is to train pupils to fix in mind place relationships. Two

things are involved in realizing location: (1) a sense of direction and (2) a concept of distance. To talk about the Louisiana Purchase without knowing the extent and location of Louisiana or to discuss the future of Germany without locating that country makes for hazy and indefinite teaching. Maps may also aid the pupil to visualize phases of history, and they may bring out the relationship between history and geography, which is essential to good teaching.

Since maps are merely diagrams that usually represent certain physical areas of the surface of the earth, they require interpretation and understanding. The formal use of maps tends to monotony and creates a distaste on the part of the pupil for such a study. Many pupils see in a map nothing more than a map. The wise teacher, in such cases, will appeal to the pupil's own experiences—his geographical environment and travel. Airplane maps, covering a large territory, on which by close scrutiny rivers, creeks, buildings, and houses may be distinguished, are of aid in training pupils to see more in a map than mere irregular lines, marks, and names. To get the pupil to realize that back of the map lie cities, towns, villages, and countryside is of great importance to an intelligent study of the geographical background of history.

Three general types of map are used in the study of history. The contemporary map depicts the land in its present state of development, including the present political boundaries of countries. The historical map shows the country at some earlier period, as for example, America in 1750, which would include the possessions of England, France, and Spain and would be entirely different from the America of today. A third type of map is that based on the knowledge of the people of a particular period. For example, the voyage of Columbus is better understood after the pupil studies Toscanelli's map, which was used by Columbus. Early American history becomes more intelligible when the pupil understands the early maps used by explorers, which contained their ideas of the size and shape of the country that lay beyond the frontier settlements.

The relationship between history and geography is so close that there should be a constant use of maps in the teaching of history. Historical events happen in some particular place at some specific time. The influence of environment upon people is extremely important, for it conditions their industry, habits, customs, ideas, and social life. Such features as mountains, rivers, plains, and climate frequently influence or determine the direction of important historical movements and events. In a study of exploration, discovery, and colonization, the information furnished by the map is almost as important as the facts of history. Maps then serve as an aid to put into concrete form certain important aspects of the story of human activity of the past.

The equipment of the classroom should include maps. History cannot be taught well without them. The lack of maps in a history classroom is similar in some respects to the lack of apparatus and instruments in a physics or a chemistry laboratory. One of the chief merits of a good wall map should be its simplicity. The ordinary wall map usually contains too much information and is therefore confusing to the pupils. The teacher should bear this in mind and make the study of maps as simple as possible. Historical wall maps should be constantly utilized in order to emphasize the physical and place elements of history, for indifference to map study is a common weakness in history teaching.

Maps carefully sketched on the blackboard by the teacher may be used as outline maps and may contain a minimum number of facts. Such maps are of great aid in driving home certain important points. Occasionally pupils may be called on to locate on the outline some important city, river, or mountain chain, or to point to the place in which some outstanding event happened. The pupil should possess very definite knowledge of the geography asked for, in order to give accurate information. In such an exercise, his mistakes will subject him to the criticism of the class. His place may be taken by another when he fails. Such exercises, used occasionally, are incentives to careful study. Blackboard outline maps may now be obtained from many publishers. They are made on slated cloth and constitute a "roll-up" blackboard on which is the outline of the map. A later addition to commercial maps is the white-material, washable outline map. Such can be hung on the wall; and as various colored crayons can be used on them, they have an advantage over blackboard maps. They are valuable in impressing on the minds of pupils a main fact or idea; and as they are washable, they may be used constantly.

The maps in the textbook used by the class deserve serious study. Most textbooks now contain an adequate number of maps wisely chosen. It is the duty of the teacher to point out their value in connection with what is being studied and also to help the pupil interpret them. Like wall maps, they often contain too much information. Attention must be directed to only a few facts at one time. Occasionally, when their importance warrants it, they may be copied by the pupil outside the classroom. The chief reasons for having the pupils draw such maps are: to make a deeper impression on them by the addition of motor activity to visual and oral activities, to make important maps in the textbook more intelligible, and to encourage the study of maps.

Many teachers require pupils to work out a series of maps by copying them from textbooks or atlases, by filling in outline maps, or by making maps from information supplied by the teacher, textbook, or reference books. Frequently such exercises constitute a work of art and represent

much time spent. It is true that skill in map making has been developed, but often little more than this is accomplished. The pupil, when examined, frequently shows that he has not learned much else. Without the map, for example, he cannot tell where the American frontier was in 1700 or where the boundaries of the United States were in 1821. To overcome this difficulty, maps should be carefully studied, and occasional tests should be given, requiring the reproduction of important maps from memory. An excellent exercise is to assign for study a map in a good atlas or in the text, explaining carefully the points to be thoroughly learned and announcing a time when a test will be given requiring the reproduction of the map and the information assigned from memory. The results expected should not be more than a sketch map, but one showing that the material is understood and that visualization is fairly accurate. Consideration must be given to pupils who are not visual-minded. The work of reproducing maps from memory may be begun in an informal way in the junior high school and should be made an important part of history in the senior high school.

Outline maps save the time of drawing maps and are especially useful when only geographical locations and physical features are to be placed on them. They may be obtained from publishing houses, or stencils of maps may be bought, from which the school can mimeograph as many copies as desired. The use of water colors, crayons, or colored inks on outline maps makes possible the filling in of boundaries, routes, invasions, explorations, and movements of population. Care and selection must be exercised not to require the filling in of too many maps. In addition to two or three that are completely drawn, not more than eight or ten outline maps should be required to be filled in during the work of one year in history. The use of such maps for tests is discussed elsewhere.

It must be remembered that map work is an aid to learning and not an end in itself. If a pupil has learned a fact well, the drawing of a map is superfluous and the time spent might be profitably used for further study. Map work is an excellent device in clarifying vague and hazy ideas that a pupil may have concerning certain facts or in emphasizing certain points that the teacher deems essential.

Though the chief purpose of maps is to teach a realization of location, they may be used for many other purposes in teaching the social studies. They may show population density over certain areas for definite periods of time; they may depict the vote of presidential elections; or they may indicate the sources or the distribution of immigration for any particular time. In fact, any information that can be measured and located may be placed on maps. The importance of these maps in the social studies is evident, for their chief value lies in their appeal to the eye. Such are obtainable in wall-map form from many publishers.

Globes, Charts, Diagrams, and Graphs

As a map depicts the reproduction of a flat surface, it naturally may create a distortion in the minds of pupils, especially in its violation of latitude and longitude. The size of areas and the locations of countries and continents in relation to the world are often hard to comprehend. For this reason, a globe is an indispensable aid to pupils. Naturally, more use will be made of it in the junior high school than in the senior high school, especially if there is emphasis on geography in the lower schools. Yet even in the senior high school, the teacher should make constant use of the globe.

The value of charts, diagrams, and graphs also lies in their visual appeal. In the teaching of history and government, charts and diagrams may well illustrate such subjects as the structure of the federal government or of state governments, the development of the English Parliament, or the growth of German unity. The work may be done as an original exercise, the information being gathered and worked out from textbooks and other sources, or else the completed work of others may be copied, in order to deepen impressions. In all such exercises, simplicity must be insisted on, for there is always the danger of making charts and diagrams too elaborate, complex, and complicated.

In the teaching of history, a time chart is usually worth while as a help toward gaining the time sense, which is generally a difficult accomplishment. Little headway is generally made by the pupils in the elementary school in the development of a historical time sense, and therefore the task is one for the teacher in the junior high school. A chart listing the outstanding events of the epoch or period of history being studied and showing the place of the particular period in its proper sequence in the history of the world is a valuable aid in developing a time sense in pupils. The blackboard, of course, may be used to the same end. The time line on which periods of history are marked off may be drawn on the blackboard. Some teachers advocate the use of a line of twine on which pictures or names of the outstanding events of each period are tied or pegged. A chart in chronological outline form, which permanently occupies an entire side of a room, can be filled in from time to time, and is of great value in developing a sense of time.

In the teaching of economics, and in the other social studies to a lesser degree, the use of diagrams, graphs, and statistical tables is extremely important. These devices are very helpful to a clear understanding of complicated facts and relations and are coming into such general use that pupils ought to understand them and know how to use them. Diagrams and graphs should be studied in order to locate certain specific items of information and also to understand their full significance in connection

with the subject studied. The pupil should also have plenty of opportunity to work up and present statistical material in the forms of diagrams, graphs, or tables. These may include line charts, bar or block charts, circular or pie diagrams, picture diagrams, graphs, and curves, as well as tables of figures.

Pictures as an Aid to Teaching

Pictures may be made an important aid in teaching the social studies, especially in the junior high school. Picture impressions are powerful and can be used to interpret language although, in turn, they must be interpreted through language. The teaching value of pictures, however, needs critical evaluation; and the teacher must keep in mind the instructional purposes that pictures may serve.

The educational results of picture study are difficult to measure and are often greatly exaggerated. Interest may be developed through the use of pictures, but frequently such interest is only spontaneous and soon dies down. Pupils also are usually content to spend time looking at pictures as an alternative to a vigorous use of the imagination unsupported by pictorial representation. On the other hand, the careful study of pictures, when rightly directed, may stimulate interest, aid the imagination, and play an important part in teaching. Many a worthy, lifelong ideal has resulted from a pupil's interpretation and understanding of a picture.

Pictures should be large enough for the entire class to see clearly. Many series of excellent pictures, large enough for classwork, may now be obtained. In some cases, such as the portrait of an important personage or an outstanding leader, the comments of the teacher to the class may be sufficient. Usually more than the teacher's explanation is necessary. The best way to use such pictures is to prepare carefully a list of questions based on the picture, its meaning, its characters, its detail, and its background, which may be made the basis for discussion and interpretation by the pupils. If this procedure is followed, the chief criticism of the use of pictures in the classroom—their trivial entertaining value—is overcome.

The chief essential of a suitable picture for use in teaching the social studies is its accuracy. For this reason, copies of famous paintings must be ruled out, except as works of art. The much-venerated picture, "Washington Crossing the Delaware," is a fanciful representation of a famous event in which many of the details are historically incorrect. Though such pictures have other valuable uses, they should not be used in teaching the social studies, except for critical purposes. Pictures that are inaccurate and unauthentic portraits may be used occasionally for criticism, but their use should be limited even for this purpose.

Pictures in the textbook are often neglected by teachers and pupils. If

they are good, they deserve to be studied. Time should be spent on the most important ones. After an examination of the details, the pupils should be asked to describe the meaning and significance of the picture, together with its interpretation and application to the text. Although American textbooks in history have contained illustrations for many years, pupils have not been encouraged to study them as they should.

Picture books or picture atlases should be used in history classes. For many years there was no equivalent in American history to the *Bilderbuch* or *Bilderatlas* of Germany, or the *Album historique* of France. Today, however, there are some excellent published collections, as J. T. Adams (Ed.) *Album of American History* (4 vols.) and the "Pageant of America" Series (15 vols.), which should be available to all pupils studying American history. For a study of the history of European countries, picture books may be obtained in this country. *The Picture Book of British History*, by S. C. Roberts, is an example.

Pupils should be encouraged to collect picture post cards and pictures from magazines and newspapers that apply to the subjects that they are studying. In this way, the teaching of the social studies may be vitalized and the interest of the pupil increased. Pictures of the excavating of ancient cities, of the signing of the Treaty of Versailles, of the United States Supreme Court in session, of Ellis Island, of the New York Stock Exchange, of the tenement sections of our large cities, of wholesale and retail markets, of giant dams, and of waterways give life and color to the social studies. In collecting material of this kind, the pupils must be taught to discriminate. Pictures that are poorly presented or those which contain sensational subjects should not be included in the collections. Many pupils take great delight in preparing scrapbooks containing pictures and illustrative materials on a topic or a unit.

Source pictures that include genuine reproductions of old photographs, drawings, or cartoons, culled from old magazines and newspapers, are of value in teaching history. The cartoons, the quaint dress, the old customs, the peculiar manners, and the strange buildings of a past age arrest the attention of pupils and may be used with great effect. Contemporary pictures of streets in Philadelphia or New York in the eighteenth century can give a better idea of certain phases of life during that period than can be gained by the most elaborate verbal or printed description.

Blackboard Work

The blackboard should play an essential part in the teaching of the social studies, not only because most adolescents learn more easily by visualization than by any other means of instruction but because blackboard work may assume a multitude of forms. Such work is valuable for

emphasizing important points of the lesson and in fixing them in the minds of the pupils. The method of instruction naturally determines the amount of time that should be devoted to blackboard work, but provision should be made for it by both teacher and pupil in all methods. Even in socialized recitation and supervised study, the aim and outline of the work should be kept continually before the class and some time be given to individual blackboard exercises by the pupils.

A proper use of the blackboard is not hard to develop. As in almost every phase of teaching, there is much room for individuality in its use. The teacher may make it serve for many purposes, including all types of questions, outlines, summaries, maps, graphs, and sketches, which may be seen and studied by the entire class. Proper names that are not familiar to the pupils should be written on the blackboard and pronounced; all difficult words that are new to the pupils should be written, pronounced, and explained. The principal points of an assignment may also be noted on the board, in order to make sure that the new work assigned to the class is clearly understood.

The teacher who can sketch will hold the attention of the class. The work to be effective does not require perfection in art. Even if the teacher does not have this ability in any degree, there is usually a pupil who excels in drawing and who will gladly aid in the work. Generally all such work should be done before the class period. All outlines, unless they are being built up together by teacher and class, all questions, all assignments, and in fact all the written blackboard work of the teacher should be done beforehand. Writing is a slow process, and the attention of the class is soon lost if it has to remain idle while the teacher is at work at the blackboard.

The use of the blackboard by the pupils is invaluable. Such individual work is important because of the self-activity and self-expression that it affords. Pupils enjoy blackboard work and, through practice, they can be made to express their ideas upon it in a careful, orderly manner. An excellent way of finding out the weak points in the understanding of work prepared by the class is to send a number of pupils to the blackboard, giving each one a question to answer on the work assigned. A fairly accurate idea of the pupil's preparation and his understanding of the lesson may be obtained in this way. The answers may be made the basis of class discussion and criticism. The powers of class criticism can be developed by such procedures. The lesson can be made interesting and easier to remember when written before the class and read by individual pupils, and the discussion over disputed points affords a means of impressing facts and ideas, as well as offering topics for oral debates. If the entire class cannot be sent to the board at one time, those remaining in their seats should be

kept busy by the teacher's questioning them or assigning them reading or written work. The work of the pupils at the board should not be taken up until all have completed their work and have returned to their seats. Then one by one, the pupils are called on to read their answers; and in turn, the class is called on to criticize and discuss each answer.

Blackboard work may frequently be assigned for a new lesson. A few pupils can be assigned simple maps, diagrams, graphs, outlines, a list of names, or short paragraphs which are important to the assigned lesson and which they will be required to place on the board at the next class period. At the beginning of the new lesson, these pupils should be sent to the board to place on it their assignments from memory. It is obvious that only the brighter students should be given such relatively difficult tasks.

The importance of blackboard work as an aid to teaching should not be minimized. Classrooms should be equipped with sufficient blackboard space. All work done by pupils at the blackboard should be criticized and discussed by the class or at least be commented on by the teacher. A high standard must be insisted on, for the lack of serious effort on the part of some pupils might tend to destroy the value of such work and set unfortunate examples for the rest of the class.

The Use of Motion Pictures and Projected Still Pictures

The rise and progress of motion pictures have been rapid. Many in Europe and the United States contributed to the invention, but it was in 1893 at the World's Fair in Chicago that Thomas Edison's kinetograph, the first successful motion picture machine, was exhibited. The rapid development of motion pictures in the field of amusement from the opening years of the twentieth century is familiar to the present generation. The first attempts to use motion pictures in the schools for distinctly educational ends dates from the period of the First World War. Although talking pictures were introduced into the world of amusement in 1927, they did not make any noteworthy contribution to the work of education until after 1931.

Soon after the first attempts to apply motion pictures to educational uses in the schools, many believed that this form of visual instruction would supplant all other methods of teaching. Even Edison expressed this view. Many articles were written and much was said about the value of motion pictures in education. According to the new enthusiasts, the time consumed in the educative process would be cut down, textbooks would pass out of existence, and highly trained teachers would no longer be required. The prophecies were not fulfilled, and a saner view of the use of motion pictures in education has been generally accepted. The motion picture in any form cannot be more than a visual aid. But as an aid it has much

value, for from it the pupil may receive an emotional and concrete basis for mental abstractions that is often more adequate than collateral reading or reference work.

Since children see motion pictures quite early in their lives and usually in the theater, the idea of entertainment is likely to be uppermost in the mind of the pupil. He may regard viewing films as entertainment. This presents an advantage and a possible psychological problem. The advantage is that it introduces study subjects as a possible field for broader entertainment. The problem, however, is to make clear that certain phases of education call for concentrated and serious study. There is no royal road to a broad, balanced education.

Motion pictures can be made a real visual aid in the schools. They may be used in any subject where action is an important factor in gaining a clear idea of the subject. Next to the cost of a machine and the rental of films, which many schools cannot afford, the chief difficulty has been the impossibility of obtaining many films definitely correlated with school subjects. Some films have been made for school use that are perhaps interesting and entertaining but not particularly applicable to the subject taught. Many also have not been made from the pedagogical point of view. The poor quality of most of the projection obtained from school equipment has also added to the difficulties of the general use of motion pictures in schools. Much has been done within the last few years to overcome the difficulties of producing films of direct educational value in the different school subjects and also to provide better machines and equipment that schools can afford to buy.

The making of historical films for use in schools is increasing. The study of history, especially, can be made clearer and more comprehensive if pictorial representations are well done, but it is also possible to make historical scenes grotesquely false. Many of the historical films designed for use in school have been of the latter type, and their use has done much to discredit the use of films among teachers of the social studies. Among the efforts in the past to produce worth-while films for school use have been the production of such films as the Yale Chronicles of America Photoplays, which are historical dramas setting forth important developments in American history. The accuracy of the events portrayed in these films has been passed on by historians, and the supervision of the dramatic parts, as well as the photography, has been the work of experts in these fields. Experiments have been conducted in many places with a view of developing a technique for using historical films to determine their actual value in visual education.

Many films have been produced in recent years suitable for the non-historical social studies. Some of these are exceedingly well done and may

prove a valuable aid for the alert teacher; they may be obtained from a variety of agencies. Almost every conceivable subject has been utilized: travelogue, industry, crime, immigration, race, depressed classes, conservation and reclamation, unemployment, housing, transportation, and agriculture.

In the use of motion pictures in the schools, the first question that arises is whether the film can be used more effectively in the classroom, where numbers are small, or in the auditorium, where large numbers are present. In the teaching of history and other social studies, it is evident that many advantages are to be obtained from the classroom use of motion pictures rather than from their use in the entertainment atmosphere associated with large gatherings in the auditorium. In some states, laws require that motion pictures be projected from a fireproof booth. Where it is impossible, therefore, to show the pictures in the classroom, the individual class must be taken to the auditorium to see the picture. The "nonflam" film, which is not explosive, has now been developed successfully, and because of this, laws requiring fireproof booths for projecting motion pictures have been changed. The difficulty in regard to showing motion pictures in the classroom has thus been solved. The ideal is to show pictures having educational values to small groups only.

Opinion is divided as to whether motion pictures should be shown at the introduction to a lesson or at its close. Whichever procedure is followed, a desirable "mental set" on the part of the pupils is essential. The teacher should see the film beforehand; he should know its contents and understand what values he expects the pupils to get out of it. Thus, before the picture is shown, the lesson should be introduced, an atmosphere conducive to the learning process created, and the pupils instructed as to what they must look for in the picture. Comment should rarely be made while the film is being shown. Such remarks as seem necessary should apply directly to the scene being shown. Some advocate that the film be stopped to emphasize some important point or to examine detail. This is generally not advisable in historical pictures, as it distracts from the story and the action. It may be advisable to stop a film in order to point out important scenes and pictures. After the motion picture has been shown, there should be class discussion, with the pupils expressing their thoughts and opinions freely. This will serve to aid the pupils in organizing the new information gained, in correcting misapprehensions, in developing the interest created, and in making the knowledge, ideals, attitudes, and other outcomes more permanent.

Much has been claimed for the use of motion pictures, not only in history, but in the other social studies as well. It has been stated that the proper use of motion pictures in the schools is the best way to portray life

in movement, whether of the past or the present. They stimulate the imagination of the pupils and arouse interest that leads to increasing mental effort. They aid the memory, help in assimilation, and have many other values, because they present material closer to reality than the presentation of the teacher, the text, or the reference books. As to the place motion pictures will occupy in the teaching of the social studies and in schoolwork in general, only the future can tell. The expense has been the chief factor in preventing the general use of this excellent visual aid.

The teacher may obtain suitable films from many sources. The various departments of the federal government have many that are available for the schools. Many states have such a service in their departments of education for use in their respective states. Industrial and transportation companies have films for public use that are high in educational value. A number of universities have film libraries where schools may obtain films. Besides these, there are the commercial distributing companies. Some colleges, such as the University of Wisconsin, the University of Minnesota, Ohio State University, Pennsylvania State College, College of the City of New York, Cornell University, and others, have organized film service for schools. The result of this has been to place at the disposal of the teacher educational films at little or no cost. Many of these may be borrowed with no expense other than transportation charges. Others may be secured at a low rental charge.

Inasmuch as films have to be ordered well in advance, it will pay the teacher to plan ahead of time the selection he wishes to obtain during the school year. He can then order suitable films to be delivered at the approximate time when they will fit in with class discussion. For example, if a teacher plans to take up a study of the Monroe Doctrine during the first week in February, he could order the film "Our Monroe Doctrine" for a specified day of that week. A wise and alert teacher will order his films during the summer vacation. Needless to say, up-to-date schools should have a place in their budgets for the rental of films.

The teacher should spend some time in discovering what films are available for school use. An excellent list of films may be found in the *Educators Guide to Free Films*. This volume is revised annually by the Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin; it costs six dollars a year. A new edition is available at the beginning of each school year. Another worthy publication in this field is the *Educational Film Guide*, formerly the *Educational Film Catalog*, published by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York. This also is revised annually.

The stereopticon and photographic sensitive glass slides (3¼ by 4 inches) can be used to advantage in teaching the social studies. The still picture enables the details to be noted and studied. It is especially valu-

able in projecting the pictures of buildings, statues, ruins, paintings, roads, bridges, dress, weapons, and scenes of various kinds. This means of visual instruction is of service especially in illustrating phases and scenes of ancient and medieval history, but it may be used to advantage to show any concrete object, as well as maps, graphs, and charts.

A more recent development in projecting pictures is the 2- by 2-inch slides, which are positive transparencies on 35-mm. film, masked and mounted in cardboard or between glass. This type of slide is becoming popular because color pictures can be obtained at low cost, and teachers and students can even make their own slides; besides, these slides take up much less room than the large glass slides and are easier to handle and to store.

Filmstrips (or slidefilms, or stripfilms) are made up of twenty to a hundred or more pictures printed on a roll of film of 35-mm. width to be projected by a specially constructed machine. Explanations of the pictures are often superimposed or printed in separate frames. Usually a teacher's guide accompanies the filmstrip, to aid the teacher in his explanations. Some of the latest filmstrips are accompanied by recorded lectures, and a number include dialogue and indigenous sound. A wide variety of 2- by 2-inch slides and also filmstrips can be obtained from such companies as the Society for Visual Education, Chicago, Illinois.

Television

Television has great possibilities as an educational medium, but the schools have not yet used its services to any extent. The first public television broadcasts were made in England in 1927 and in the United States in 1930, but in both cases the programs were experimental. Telecasting on a regularly scheduled basis began in the United States in 1939 in connection with the opening of the New York's World Fair. During the Second World War, however, there were many interruptions in the service. After the war, the establishment of an increasing number of television stations, the organization of new programs, and the rapid sale of television sets brought the new medium into the homes of millions of Americans and began to modify habits of living. As television becomes mechanically perfected and is extended into all sections of the nation, it will take its place as a most important medium of mass communication and of education.

Since television's popularity among teen-age youth is growing at the expense of movies, radio, and reading, according to recent surveys, there is a need for the guidance and supervision of pupils in the viewing of programs. Few homes maintain regular schedules and most teen-agers are permitted to view programs irregularly during any period that they are otherwise unoccupied. In many homes, however, pupils are allowed to see

TV programs only after the completion of school homework. It is unfortunate that the number of good educational programs lags far behind in the race with programs of cowboy, murder, and puppet shows. As more attention is given to education on television channels and as programs improve, teachers of the social studies, especially, should point out and stress the best educational programs and give some time to discussing them and using them as aids to learning.

Experiments in the use of television for classroom purposes have been made in several cities, especially in Baltimore and Philadelphia. Programs have been telecast to a selected number of schools in these cities and lessons in science, geography, music appreciation, current events, and world affairs have been given through the new medium at scheduled times. However, relatively small sums of money have been spent on such experiments throughout the country. The cost, together with mechanical and legal limitations, has prevented the use of television in most schools. Where a classroom can possess a television set, speeches of prominent persons and historical events can be viewed and used to motivate and promote learning. Many educators look forward to the time when television will be an important phase of school instruction. While television may make its greatest contribution in music and the other arts, telecasts should aid greatly in the effective learning of instructional materials in the social studies and other fields of knowledge.

Drawings and Cartoons

The drawing of pictures and cartoons by pupils as aids to the social studies is advocated by many teachers. Diagrams, time lines, charts, graphs, and maps made by pupils are forms of drawing and have a place in the work of the social studies. The question as to whether or not pupils should spend much time in drawing pictures in courses in the social studies is a debatable one. Drawings may be of two kinds: (1) copying from pictures and (2) original drawings. Sketching from copies is relatively easy for most pupils. Such work has value. Sketches make an appeal to the eye, and their execution conforms to the principle of "learning by doing" and demands attention to detail, which is helpful in imparting reality to a subject. The chief objection to this work is that pupils might spend too much time and labor on drawing which possibly might be spent more advantageously in study.

A few pictures simply but carefully sketched can brighten a notebook and thus add to a pupil's interest in the social studies. Such work should be left largely to the discretion of the pupils. When drawings are undertaken, the teacher should require certain definite results. Drawings should contain essential features and not a superabundance of detail. After they

have been copied, they should be described in writing and the reason given for the choice of the drawing. The significance of the sketch in relation to the work of the student in the social studies should be emphasized and not its conception as a work of art.

The original drawing might play a part in the social studies. Pupils can visualize certain phases of a subject that is being studied and put down their impressions in the form of a sketch. The results may be fanciful or even distorted, but the teacher will find out what the pupil's conception of a subject is. Many teachers have been successful in work of this kind, especially in obtaining results in the form of cartoons. Suggestions may be given to the pupils by the teacher. For instance, in a junior-high-school class, a teacher made the suggestion that Napoleon's schemes were far-reaching in character and might be likened to an octopus or a spider. One of the pupils drew the picture of an octopus, each of the tentacles representing one of the Corsican's schemes, and each tentacle tightly grasping the victim of that scheme. Many other examples of individual work along these lines may be found. Individuality of taste and originality of expression may be encouraged in this way.

School Museums and Collections

Among the many articles that can be used to make the social studies concrete and interesting are: Indian arrowheads and implements, old letters, and early newspapers. Much historical material of this kind is resting under layers of dust in attics and in many other places all over the country. When teachers of the social studies call on their classes to bring such material to the classroom for illustrative purposes, the amount that appears is often surprising.

In a few high schools, successful attempts have been made to secure such articles for the school museum. In some cases, the owners give it outright to the school; in other cases, the material is lent, usually for an indefinite time. A worth-while museum, however, requires at least a small amount of space and some glass cases. Often the difficulties in obtaining these make a school museum impossible. Wherever it is possible, however, the worth of a museum, containing remains of the past that have been carefully selected for their historic interest and classroom value and not because they are mere curiosities, cannot be overestimated. A well-organized museum which contains objects to illustrate different periods of the past will result in greatly increased interest in the social studies.

The use of material from the past to illustrate phases of the social studies requires careful planning on the part of the teacher. The exhibition of an article or of articles to the class must be accompanied by a discussion or an explanation that will lead to a better understanding and a greater ap-

preciation of the life and times of the period from which the article came. This method, rightly used, will bring valuable results; for it is teaching by illustration, but here the illustration itself is a part of the past that it represents.

The teacher will do well to collect materials of the present that may aid him in vitalizing the subjects. Quite often, commercial museums are glad to provide samples for use in the schools; for example, a display of cotton, from the raw material filled with seeds down to the finished product. Among the items received from such sources are samples of iron ore, hard and soft coal, various types of rock formations, tea leaves, glass sand, and the products from various grains. Teachers should encourage pupils to bring to class materials that may prove useful in studying a subject. Frequently, parents are in a position to secure many of these articles and are glad to find that their children take an interest in them. It is surprising how much can be obtained for school use. Such materials, however, should be selected because they have classroom value and not because they are mere curiosities. For example, in a class in problems of democracy, such items may be utilized as sales-tax tokens, foreign coins, stock certificates, Negro newspapers, Communist newspapers, labor journals, circulars, passports, Social Security cards, legal forms, police records, ballot sheets, political notices, and government publications.

The school museum might include models made by the pupils. Medieval history, in particular, offers excellent opportunities for such work. Models of castles, manor houses, manors, churches, monasteries, medieval shops, armor, and windows may be carved in wood. A unique way of making models is with the use of soap, but care should be taken to see that soap companies do not commercialize on the activities of the school for their own gain. Other forms of historical models may be made in strip wood, fretwood, and cardboard.

Pupils who have the ability and the desire to make models of various kinds should be encouraged to do so. All such work should be done outside the classroom, in order that it will not interfere with regular studies. Elaborate models require considerable time and much labor. From the point of view of learning by doing, the pupil's understanding is not developed any more by making elaborate models than by making simple ones. Simple models, fairly well made, have an appeal to the eye and never fail to arouse interest. They are therefore of value to the class and an addition to the museum. In the classroom, they can be made the object of discussion. For example, a model of a battering ram may illustrate the strength of feudal castles, which in turn can be made the central theme in teaching phases of life during the medieval period. Simple models, and not elaborate or complicated ones, therefore should be encouraged, for

they are of as much value as the elaborate ones in aiding the development of the mental conceptions of a pupil in a natural way. In many schools, there is correlation between history and manual-training departments in accomplishing this work.

Summary

Within recent years, the interest in visual aids in education has grown to such a considerable extent that attempts are being made in a scientific manner to determine the degree of their effectiveness and the best means of presentation. In the teaching of history, the use of maps is essential, especially in developing a sense of direction and a concept of distance. Classroom maps, blackboard maps, map exercises, and a globe should be utilized in the teaching of history and in the other social studies as well. Charts, diagrams, and graphs should also be given an important place, especially in the nonhistorical social studies. Pictures should be employed as an aid in conveying ideas, for picture impressions are powerful. Series of pictures, textbook pictures, and picture collections can be of great value if properly used and the pictures well interpreted. The use of the blackboard, both as a visual aid and for pupil self-expression, is invaluable. A most important visual aid is the motion picture. A few decades ago, enthusiasts believed that this form of visual instruction would take the place of all other methods of teaching. A saner view is held today, and motion pictures have been made a real visual aid in many schools. Even today, the demand has not been sufficient to warrant the outlay of money necessary to produce many instructive and historically accurate films, but an excellent beginning has been made. Television has potentialities as a visual aid. Among other important visual aids are drawings and cartoons, which are advocated by many teachers. School museums also may serve a useful purpose if the collections and models are carefully selected for their educational values. Visual devices of many kinds may serve in making the abstract concrete and in arousing interest in studies that would otherwise be unreal and dull.

Questions

1. Define visual aids and give the chief reasons for their use.
2. What are the (*a*) various types of maps and (*b*) various classifications of maps?
3. Why is a knowledge of related geography important in the study of history?
4. To what extent can charts, diagrams, and graphs be used in the various social studies?
5. Why are pictures, properly presented, an important aid to teaching?
6. List the most important uses of the blackboard in teaching the social studies.
7. What procedures should be followed in using motion pictures as a visual aid?
8. What are the arguments for and against the use of motion pictures in schools?

9. Show how television can be used as a visual aid at present.
10. To what extent should drawings and cartoons be used in teaching the social studies?
11. What are the chief purposes of a school museum? Upon what basis should the selection of objects be made?

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CHAPTER XVI

SPECIAL ACTIVITIES

Dramatization as a Method of Teaching

Teachers of the social studies have the choice of many special activities which they may use to make their teaching more interesting and effective. Dramatization in its various forms provides worth-while learning experiences and may take the form of plays, pageantry, tableaux, pantomime, and less formal dramatic activities. If used wisely and not too often, dramatization can be an effective method of teaching the social studies, especially in the junior high school. Such a method of instruction has been employed from the days when primitive man trained adolescent youth to take his place in the tribe by the means of initiatory ceremonies. During the Middle Ages and later, the church made use of the drama, partly as a means of instruction and partly to make the religious story vivid and impressive. The dramatic instinct is strong among all peoples. Since education today is attempting to utilize every instinct of the child in the learning process, the value of dramatization in training pupils to be industrious, reliable, and resourceful and to cooperate with their fellow pupils must be considered. Dramatization, rightly accomplished, arouses enthusiasm in the classroom, stirs the emotions, provides for self-expression, and is a valuable aid to inspirational teaching. This means of teaching, however, must be used judiciously in the high school.

In the first year or two of junior high school, spontaneous dramatization may be carried out very effectively. The teacher or a bright pupil may read or tell the story, which is acted out by a number of pupils without preparation. Another type of dramatization consists in having pupils give the substance of a classroom play in their own words. In this form of procedure, the parts of the play are assigned, but the pupils are told that they are not required to memorize their parts word for word. When the play is produced in the classroom, action and movement are impromptu. Even when junior-high-school pupils are required to memorize their parts entirely, the dramatization should be as informal as possible. Such informal work, however, cannot be continued into the upper grades of the high school because of the psychological changes that are taking place in the lives of the pupils. The self-consciousness that comes with adolescence results to a greater or lesser degree in awkwardness, diffidence, and a fear

of ridicule. These qualities of growing youth interfere somewhat with the expression of the dramatic instinct, which is vigorous before these changes occur. In the senior high school, therefore, dramatization must usually be formal and conventional. Instead of using their own words, the pupils cover their feelings of self-consciousness by learning and expressing the speeches of characters. They are still interested in action and movement; and for this reason, dramatization deserves a place in teaching the social studies in the upper grades of the secondary school. Frequently, such work must be directed to a particular end, as, for instance, a contribution to some special celebration or participation in the work of the school assembly.

In a classroom play, there is no need for stage settings and scenery. The blackboards can represent forests, and a cleared space can become a market place. The emphasis is placed on action, gesture, expression, voice, and interpretation rather than on clothes, scenery, and setting. Those who take part may be chosen by the class, but the teacher must take care that the same pupils do not monopolize all the activities. Generally a class selects the most popular pupils, with little regard for the values to be achieved by both actors and class. Characters should be chosen as appropriately as possible. Thus from the beginning, an opportunity is presented for discussion which can include analysis, judgment, and planning.

The making of the Constitution of the United States lends itself to dramatization, especially in the junior high school. Extracts from the sources should be read by the entire class. The important phases of the Constitutional Convention can be learned from Madison's *Notes* and from other sources.¹ After the characters are chosen to represent the leading members of the Convention, parts should be learned. The scenes of certain sessions that were highly dramatic may be presented, or the work as a whole may be summarized and portrayed. The opening scenes, the choosing of Washington as president of the Convention, the struggle that resulted in the compromises, the withdrawal of the dissenting members, the appeals of Franklin and Hamilton, the completed work, and the signing of the document may be made the basis of dramatizing this important event of our national history.

Such historical events in American history as the signing of the Mayflower Compact, the purchase of Louisiana, the Lewis and Clark expedition, and such phases of colonial experience as life on the frontier, colonial schools, and the commercial pursuits of the seaboard towns are a few of

¹ The records of the Convention and much supplementary material may be found in Max Farrand (Ed.), *The Records of the Federal Convention* (4 vols., New Haven, 1911-1937).

the subjects that may be used to combine the dramatic instinct inherent in the pupil with the essentially dramatic scenes of history.

Incidents for dramatization might well be chosen from the field of biography. Pupils of high-school age have an interest in individuals. Their acquaintance with noble characters of the past and present will create a desire to be like them. Scenes in the life of one man can present much of the history of the period. Phases of the life of Washington can be used to depict much of the history of the last half of the eighteenth century. Washington the surveyor, the lieutenant, the country gentleman, the general, and the president of a new republic may be made the basis on which to present much of the history of our country during its most crucial moments. The customs, the language, and the mannerisms of the period can be brought out in the dramatization, giving atmosphere and reality to the study. Other characters, such as Franklin, Jefferson, Hamilton, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Wilson, may be taken as the pivots around which certain phases of history can be dramatized and taught.

Care must be taken in the choice of historical material for dramatization. Certain events cannot be acted in the classroom. Indian attacks and massacres, battle scenes, deathbed scenes, and executions must not be considered. There are also certain scenes where the physical conditions under which they are attempted make them ridiculous. Washington's soldiers shivering and starving at Valley Forge, although a dramatic situation in itself, is not a good incident to dramatize in a well-heated classroom. Neither can Paul Revere's ride or Washington crossing the Delaware be properly presented in the atmosphere of the school. But a wealth of historical material suitable for classroom plays and dramas can be carefully selected through good taste and common sense.

After an outstanding event or phase of history has been dramatized by a class, the most important part of the work follows. Questions wisely chosen by the teacher should open up wide discussion. Questions as to how the powers of the national government under the Confederation differed from those of the present national government and as to the reasons for the insistence on a Bill of Rights are problems that might be drawn out of a presentation of the Constitutional Convention. Thus the dramatization may be made the central point of the discussion. The forward reach, the backward look, the binding together of historical incidents, and a clearer understanding of the scenes of history may result if historical incidents are accurately and properly dramatized.

Not only can plays and dramas be used advantageously in depicting and teaching the episodes of history, but they can be given a place in teaching the nonhistorical social studies as well. The various activities of national

and state government, the procedures of our courts, the phases of industrial life, and the attributes of good citizenship are a few of the aspects of the nonhistorical social studies in which many incidents may be found that are particularly adapted to plays.

The chief criticisms directed against the use of dramatization in the high school are that it takes up too much time and that it generally leads to stressing minor points and less important aspects of a subject. It is the duty of the teacher, however, to see that time is not wasted through the use of any method. He must choose material that lends itself to dramatic use and that is important enough to be presented. If, through dramatization, human experiences can be thoroughly understood and relived, it is well worth spending time on it, even in preference to teaching a large number of facts that are unreal and vague to the pupil.

Short classroom dramas and plays, written by pupils, are often excellently done. The teacher should stimulate the writing of short dramas, plays, and dialogues. In such exercises, pupils can bring out their ideas of a character, an event, or a phase of history. In the junior high school, the work must necessarily be simple; but in the senior high school, the highest type of artistic production should be encouraged. This work may be done by individual pupils or by several of the most capable pupils, selected to write a play for the class. Such an exercise is a means of self-expression, as well as an aid to learning facts and ideas. The results of playwriting by pupils are often remarkable.

A form of dramatization well adapted for use in both junior and senior high schools is the tableau. Since the tableau is an acted play without words, some attention must be paid to costume and scenery. Preparations that are too elaborate, however, will defeat the aim of the pageantry by destroying the simplicity of school exercises of this character. The work of preparation should be done outside the classroom. When all is ready for presentation to the class, a pupil should introduce the scene by reading or telling the story or its meaning. If there are several scenes, connecting statements may be made between them; and at the close of the tableau, a summary should be made. Tableaux, well prepared and presented occasionally, can be of much value as an aid to teaching.

The Use of Poetry and Music in Teaching the Social Studies

A generation ago, pupils were required to memorize much poetry. Today the opposite extreme has been reached, and little rote work is required in the high school. Still there is value in having pupils memorize a few selected poems which are historically accurate and express in appropriate rhythmical language high ideals, especially devotion to justice, liberty, and human rights. In the junior high school, in particular, a few carefully

selected poems in history courses should be memorized by all pupils. Longer historical poems should be assigned as supplementary or collateral reading; for the imagination of the poet can create a picture of past days, and history can be made less dull, less vague, less shadowy, and therefore more real.

As in the case of historical fiction, the historical poem aids the pupil to realize the events described and gives an air of reality to the past. The same argument that we have applied to the use of historical fiction in the schools can be applied to historical poetry as well. Scattered through the best poems are graphic and illuminating word pictures which, if learned, can never be forgotten. For example, Pope sums up the splendor of ancient Greece and Rome in a few words:

. . . the glory that was Greece
And the grandeur that was Rome.

Who can forget these lines if they have once been really learned? Or again, poetry that summarizes phases or periods of history gives interest and atmosphere to the study of history. An excellent illustration of this is Kipling's *Puck of Pook's Hill*, in which two English children, standing on a Sussex hillside, learn much of the history of England from Puck as he points out to them the marks of the past within reach of their vision. Few textbooks containing historical poetry have appeared in our country. The teacher, however, can choose and assign the best historical poetry from the many volumes found in almost all libraries.

- Music, which has been a medium to express the emotions of man from the earliest primitive days, has not been used to any great extent by teachers of the social studies. The songs of nations are so closely related to their history that they at least deserve consideration in a treatise on teaching the social studies. The teacher who can make use of music in the classroom uses a deeply emotional aid, enriches his subject, and enlivens his method and procedure.

Teachers of the social studies are usually not trained to direct class singing, which, at best, is a difficult task with adolescent pupils, whose self-consciousness is rapidly developing. The difficulty is increased by the changing voices of the boys. At times, however, this is practicable in junior-high-school classes and occasionally in the senior high school. Even though the teacher does not feel competent to promote group singing of the songs that have made history, there are many other ways of making use of music in the classroom. In almost every classroom, there are a few pupils who have been trained to sing in public. With a little tact, the teacher can secure the services of these pupils, who are generally willing to sing songs that will illustrate the phase of history being studied. Then,

too, the use of a good phonograph in the social-studies laboratory is often an excellent aid to teaching, for a variety of records to illustrate and emotionalize the study of history can now be obtained. The plaintive but rhythmic Indian songs and melodies, the hymns of the colonial period, and the songs of the Revolution and of other crises in our history can be made direct aids to the study of American history.

Even when it is impossible to use music of any kind in the social-studies classroom, the history of the outstanding songs of the world and the part that they have played in history should be taught. Many songs have been the hope and inspiration of nations; many represent a spontaneous emotional outburst of some crisis. In our own history courses, pupils are not often taught anything about the songs that have been a vital factor in our national life. Such a knowledge is essential and will aid in teaching phases of the life of our country. "The Massachusetts Song of Liberty" clearly shows the sentiments of the colonists toward the mother country in 1770; "Hail, Columbia" was written in 1798 by Joseph Hopkinson, during our troubles with France, and was set to the tune of "General Washington's March," composed in 1789 and later known as the "President's March"; the origin of "The Star-Spangled Banner," written by Francis Scott Key during the War of 1812 and set to the music of an old English drinking song, is familiar to all. During the period of the slavery controversy, many songs were born that still live. Stephen Foster's songs, including "Old Folks at Home" and "Old Kentucky Home," are perhaps the greatest. The songs of the Civil War, including "The Battle Cry of Freedom," "Tenting on the Old Camp Ground," and "Marching through Georgia," as well as "Dixie," "God Save the South," and "Maryland, My Maryland," stirred the emotions of Northerners and Southerners during that dark age of hate and strife. Many of the Civil War songs and earlier songs again became extremely popular during the Spanish-American War, and this period marked the entrance of the new popular songs. The songs of the First World War, including "Tipperary," "Keep the Home Fires Burning," "There's a Long, Long Trail," and many others, are familiar to the present generation.

Examples of the songs of the past that are of historic importance may be found in all phases of history. The "Gregorian Chant" of the early Christian church, the "Hymn of Charlemagne," the "Crusaders' Hymn," the songs of the medieval troubadours, the "Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott" of Luther and the Thirty Years' War, the "Marseillaise" of the French Revolution, and "Die Wacht am Rhein" of the Franco-Prussian War are but a few examples of songs that have made history, many of which still live. The stories of famous songs that are of importance to history may be found in many histories and collections of music and songs.

The Value of the Debate in the Social Studies

The debate has been used as a method of instruction from the days of early Greece down to the present time. Differing views are held today as to the value and use of the debate as an aid in teaching the social studies. Many still regard it as a valuable means of instruction, claiming that the debate trains the individual in the art of fluent expression, that it teaches self-confidence, that it aids in the development of self-control, that it develops reasoning power and judgment, and that it affords the pupil a knowledge of parliamentary procedure. On the other hand, some oppose the use of the debate in the social studies, owing to the great amount of preparation needed for the adequate presentation of a topic, the length of time required for collecting the necessary facts and arguments, the difficulty of choosing a really debatable topic upon which the opinions of the class are genuinely at variance, and the relatively few members of the class who can take part in the actual debate. A skillful teacher, however, can direct the work of the class in this respect in such a way as to overcome these difficulties.

In the junior high school, the debate should be somewhat elementary in character. The work of obtaining material in preparation for the debate should be divided among the pupils, as far as possible. The pupils should be told definitely what to look for and where to find the information. The subjects chosen must be interesting and not difficult. Pupils who do not take actual part in the debate should aid the leaders, not only in gathering the necessary information, but also in preparing the arguments and in making contributions by way of rebuttal.

In the senior high school, the work should be conducted more formally. Parliamentary procedure should be thoroughly understood and strictly followed. Organized classes, having a president, vice-president, and secretary, are an aid to conducting successful debates. Informal debates within the school may be held between the boys and girls of a class, between two sections of a class on the basis of some other lines of division, or between two classes. Debates between teams of different schools are very popular in some sections of the country.

A debate on a past issue often has great value, but the discussion of a problem that has a practical bearing on everyday life is usually more effective. Topics such as "Resolved that England was at fault in bringing on the American Revolution" or "Resolved that Alexander Hamilton rendered greater services to the nation than Thomas Jefferson" can be debated with success, interest, and much value. But a debate on our relations with South America, on the success of woman suffrage, on the effect of certain laws, on a community problem such as the necessity for a

new playground, or on the attributes of worthy citizenship is usually more vigorous and stimulating.

Care must be taken in the junior high school not to select topics beyond the grasp of the pupils. The material involved in debates must not be beyond their comprehension. The topics mentioned above are suited in general to pupils of junior-high-school age. Such questions, however, as the government ownership of railroads, the merits of the various schedules of a tariff, the monetary situation, or the international organization for world peace should be left to be debated in the senior high school.

In order to obtain satisfactory results, pupils must be systematically trained in the methods of getting materials for debates. This naturally involves the judicious use of bibliographies, reference books, and periodicals. It means direction and planning on the part of the teacher at certain intervals, but not too often. The work of independent study in a rather limited field, such as the debate provides, is extremely valuable from many points of view. It demonstrates clearly to the pupil the value of accurate facts, teaches him the weakness of rumor, shows him the unreliability of many newspaper assertions, and releases him from bondage to the printed page.

The Field Trip as a Means of Instruction

Pupils living in places rich in historic associations should be given the opportunity to visit and study these locations in connection with their schoolwork. Naturally, the study of American history presents this opportunity. The study of local history will aid pupils to relive the past and will lead them to an understanding of the nature and significance of history as a whole. All over the country may be found places of historic interest. The older East has some advantages over the newer West in this respect, for cities like Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Charleston and such places as Valley Forge, Braddock's Trail, Concord, and Lexington have a wealth of remains and memories from the colonial period. However, the historic associations of the countries of Europe are richer than those of our own country because the history of Europe goes back so much further. Monastic ruins, castles, and ancient cathedrals belong to the old world and not to the new. All communities, however, regardless of the time of their origin, have a history that is more or less important. Pupils should be encouraged to explore historical sites and places; and if possible, organized groups under the supervision of the teacher should visit them.

The large classes of the present time make the excursion or visit difficult, if not impossible, for most high-school classes in the social studies. Such visits usually have to be undertaken outside the regular school

periods, because of the arrangement of the high-school schedule. In an increasing number of schools, pupils are excused from attending classes when an excursion is planned. When a trip to a historic building or to historic grounds has been arranged, careful preparations should be made beforehand. The pupils must know the object of the field trip and for what they are to look. A successful expedition can be accomplished better with a small group. In the description given by the teacher or guide, the pupils should not be confused by a multitude of details, nor should they be required to hurry. If they are well prepared to understand the significance of the visit and it is made without undue haste, the remains of the past will stir their imaginations and bring concreteness to the study of the abstractions of history.

Visits to museums are an aid to the study of history and the other social studies. In the cities of our country and in many of the large towns, museums containing valuable collections of historical material may be found. As an aid to teaching the nonhistorical social studies, as well, the field trip is extremely valuable. Trips to museums containing sociological, industrial, and commercial exhibits; visits to courtrooms to observe legal procedure; the inspection of water works; the tour of newspaper offices; and the journey through industrial plants should be accorded to select groups. As in all field trips, large classes present many difficulties, including the problems of time, distance, means of transportation, and discipline. A small group of selected pupils may be sent on a trip occasionally with the intention of having them relate their experiences to the class on their return. Such visits and reports are usually interesting and successful, but the majority of pupils rarely catch the enthusiasm of the chosen few, since they have not had the actual experience themselves.

A word of caution is necessary in discussing the school field trip. Quite a number of schools are so emphasizing the trip that it disrupts the school program; consequently, the good that results from it is offset by the loss in the total educational scheme. Naturally, one learns best by first-hand information and by seeing things in practice. This is the way in which children learned before formal schooling came into existence. However, life has become so complex that a formal institution is necessary for teaching the young. Children must be taught many things, not by actual experience but through vicarious experience. No one doubts the efficacy of the first method, but time is a factor. One could learn much about the tariff by watching a ship come in from overseas and unload its cargo and by then observing the work of the custom officers. Yet if such methods were used in all learning, not much could be learned about the present complex world. In planning a trip, the teacher must take into account the entire school program and ask himself if the time taken for it is of greater

value than the loss of time taken from the school subjects. This is important, for many schools, under the guise of being progressive, have so encouraged trips that many classes—English, science, social studies—have vied in the number taken. The result has been the disruption of the school program to such an extent that the pupils have suffered. One schoolteacher aptly stated the problem when he said: "Between trips and extracurricular activities I have not had a full class during the entire school year." Trips may be an aid to education, but they can never take the place of the school.

Special Activities Connected with the Bulletin Board

A bulletin board may be made a valuable aid in teaching the social studies. It should be well located, preferably near the door, where pupils may see its displays on entering or leaving. It should reflect the kind of work taught in the social-studies classroom and be made a device to attract the attention of pupils, as well as to create and sustain their interest in the daily work of the class.

The material designed for the bulletin board must be carefully selected by the pupils under the direction of the teacher, with a view to the subject taught and the actual educational value of each particular item. Newspapers, including local, metropolitan, and foreign papers, contain news pictures, rotogravure pictures, cartoons, and news items which may be clipped and placed on the bulletin board to illustrate topics that are timely and appropriate to the work of the class. Picture post cards, illustrations from periodicals of various kinds, and posters, including those of the American Red Cross and other welfare organizations, are sources for the bulletin board. Illustrations that are poorly printed, sensational pictures, and articles that are not timely or appropriate destroy the effectiveness of the bulletin board and should not be used under any circumstances.

It is not enough to post pictures, news items, and posters on the bulletin board. The teacher must call the attention of the class to the material posted, and a limited though definite amount of time must be devoted to a discussion of the important topics. The connection between the topics posted and the work of the class or the importance of the topics in relation to the subject being studied must be pointed out. If the material is carefully selected in accord with the ages, interests, and abilities of the pupils, the bulletin board can become a very valuable aid in teaching the social studies.

The bulletin board must be kept up to date. Every few days, new material should appear. The old material should be taken down, indexed, and filed where it may be kept for future reference. Large envelopes are excellent for filing this material, which can be referred to when needed.

The work of selecting the clippings brought into the classroom by the pupils may be put into the hands of a competent committee of pupils, which should be changed from time to time. This committee or a different one can take charge of indexing and filing the old material.

Like most teaching helps and devices, the bulletin board may be made a very valuable aid to instruction if care and thought are given to it by the teacher. It can be made so attractive and interesting that the pupils will look for new items on entering the classroom. In this way, not only will more interest be manifested and specific items of information be learned, but better teaching will result if topics of general interest are tied in with the work of the class.

Education through the Radio

Much has been written during the past few years about the use and value of the radio for educational purposes. In the classroom, the radio has not yet been used much as a means of instruction. The chief reason for this is found in the fact that few radio programs are arranged for school use. The difficulty of getting suitable programs at the right time and the great amount of advertising that is broadcast preclude use of radio in the classroom at the present time. Of course, certain scheduled events, such as a speech by the President of the United States, may be heard by classes with profit and utilized as a valuable educational aid. If the radio is to be made of value in the classroom, the question arises as to how programs are to be organized and who is to pay for such service. The experiment of fitting programs to school use or even the broadcasting of educational subjects cannot be attempted without a large outlay of money. The general use of the radio in schools presents many possibilities for broadening instruction, and only the future can tell what advances may be made.

At the present time, the radio offers much to the teacher of the social studies that may be utilized for educational ends. Many programs are presented in which historical events are dramatized. In the field of current problems, the radio has much to contribute. Round-table discussions, debates, and forums are offered, covering many subjects. Speeches are given on many topics. It is not enough to urge pupils to listen to good radio programs. The teacher must specifically draw attention to the individual programs and create a desire in the pupils to hear them. Frequently, pupils need only to be started on this means of education to insure a greater activity along these lines. The writer recalls one pupil who became interested in the programs of Town Meeting of the Air to such an extent that he listened to every one during the year and purchased the bulletin of each broadcast. The teacher should regard such activity as an

integral part of his course, on the same plane as the reading of texts or other materials. If credit is given for reading, certainly it should also be given for listening to worth-while radio programs. No doubt, in the future television may be destined to play a more important role than radio in the field of education (see pp. 273-274).

The Use of Recordings in the Classroom

The improvement in disc recordings has opened up another avenue of teaching aids. Some film libraries have added recording divisions. These, together with other agencies, make it possible to obtain records suitable for secondary-school use in the social studies. Two of the largest distributors of educational recordings are Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., and Recordings Division of the New York University Film Library, New York City. Several commercial companies also distribute recordings.

Many records provided by these agencies are playable on an ordinary phonograph at 78 revolutions a minute. However, a number of them require a special machine, for long-playing records of $33\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions a minute, and others at 45 revolutions a minute are now being made. For economy, and practical purposes, it is recommended that a tri-speed record player or phonograph be purchased for the classroom, so that the three types of records may be played on the same machine.

Recordings can be used to arouse interest, to stimulate discussion, to encourage further reading, and in general to motivate the pupil so that he will want to learn. Social-studies teachers are fortunate in respect to this aid, for there are numerous historical and documentary records available (many free of charge) which can help to enrich their instruction. Momentous events and addresses of the past have been dramatically recorded and narrated by professional actors. Speeches of famous men and women have been preserved on records for posterity. Such recordings can be of great value in bringing the past to life and in creating an interest in the present. They lend vividness and reality to the learning situation and make history and the other social studies meaningful to the pupil.

In utilizing recordings, care should be taken to choose those which are appropriate to the age level and maturity of the class. The records must be well correlated with the materials being studied and care should be taken to introduce them at the proper time. The teacher should prepare the pupils by giving them an understanding of the background. Of course, it is necessary for the teacher to have listened to the record before the lesson in order to anticipate questions and to plan for follow-up discussions. Lists of recordings may be obtained from the various agencies; one of the most complete books on the subject is Robert Miles' *Recordings*

for School Use, which includes a brief summary of the contents of the records listed, together with a critical evaluation of each.

Recording and play-back equipment is finding a place in some classrooms. There are two types of such equipment: (1) the mechanical type, which records a program on a disc, and (2) the magnetic type, which consists of wire and tape recorders. The wire and tape recorders are simple and inexpensive to operate. Like the disc records, they can be played back many times without any perceptible loss of fidelity from the original recording. Unlike the disc records, the program recorded on wire and tape can be erased by the simple process of recording a new program over the old one.

In English classes, the recorder is valuable for training pupils in correct pronunciation and effective oral expression, thus affording an opportunity for self-criticism. It can also aid timid pupils to gain confidence and encourage them to participate in class discussions. For social-studies classes, worth-while radio programs, such as the Town Meeting of the Air and The United States in World Affairs, can be recorded out of school for use in the classroom. The recorder may also be used for class dramatizations, such as the signing of the Declaration of Independence and the drafting of the Constitution, which offer an opportunity for pupils to criticize their performance in order that they may strive to improve.

Summary

Dramatization may be used as an instructional aid in junior and senior high schools. Informal work can be accomplished in junior high school, but such informality cannot be carried into the upper grades because of the psychological changes that are taking place in the lives of the pupils, which result to a greater or lesser degree in self-consciousness. Dramatization may be made the central point for the discussion of a unit and thus provide motivation and interest. Although too much time can be spent on producing plays, subjects and events carefully selected and produced will serve important educational ends. Wisely selected poetry, like historical fiction, is of value in teaching the social studies because it can bring about an atmosphere of the past. Music, likewise, has a place in the classroom. It is frequently difficult for the teacher of the social studies to direct pupils in singing the songs that have made history. However, it may be possible to use a good phonograph, for which many musical records to illustrate and emotionalize history can be obtained. A knowledge of the famous songs of history should also be taught. Debates provide the means for training pupils in securing and evaluating material and in securing accurate facts. Preparation for a debate requires time and application, yet it may be made a valuable means of instruction.

Excursions and trips to museums and other places of educational interest, although presenting difficulties, especially to large classes, can bring concreteness to the abstractness of the social studies if pupils are well prepared to understand the significance of their visits. The classroom bulletin board may be made the center of special activities of the entire class and a valuable aid to teaching, if care and thought are given to it. The radio presents possibilities for broadening instruction. The difficulty of obtaining suitable programs and the great amount of advertising interfere with its general use in the classroom. Recordings are a new classroom aid; they are gaining in favor and present excellent possibilities for the future.

Questions

1. Discuss the various types of dramatization that can be used in junior and senior high schools.
2. Why should great care be taken in selecting subjects and material for dramatization?
3. List the values of dramatization as a classroom aid.
4. To what extent should poetry and music be used in teaching the social studies?
5. Give the arguments for and against the use of the debate in the social studies in junior and senior high schools.
6. What are the educative values of field trips and excursions to museums and other places of educational interest?
7. Point out the difficulties and disadvantages of field trips.
8. Show how the bulletin board in the social-studies classroom can be made an effective teaching aid.
9. Why have the schools been slow to utilize the radio in classroom instruction?
10. Discuss the use of recordings in the teaching of history and the other social studies.

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CHAPTER XVII

MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION

The Purposes of Testing

Measurement and evaluation have become an integral part of the educational process and it is the responsibility of the teacher to carry out all phases of a testing-and-evaluation program in his classroom. It is therefore necessary for the teacher to understand the educational- and intelligence-testing movement. To be successful, one must give much thought and time to this field.

One of the most important purposes of measurement and evaluation is the establishment of standards for promotion from one grade to another, for graduation, for certification, and for admission to college. High-school records are important because institutions of higher learning and business and industrial firms, to a large degree, select and place students and young workers on the basis of their accomplishments in school. Such records usually show ability, achievement, personality, character, and interests.

Among other purposes of measurement and evaluation, that of guidance ranks high. Modern tests provide information about the pupil's relative strengths and weaknesses, and such information, together with other data, may be used to assist in pupil guidance. Under the new plans, general-intelligence tests, prognostic tests, diagnostic tests, and special-aptitude tests, in addition to other types of measurement, provide a basis for directing the work of the pupil into the fields for which he is best fitted.

Pupils tend to believe that the chief reason for study is to meet the demands of the teacher and the school. The increased use of more natural and objective types of measurements gives an indication of individual growth in defined types of achievement from month to month and from year to year and therefore provides an incentive to effort by pupils. Through a well-developed testing program, pupils may see for themselves the progress of their learning achievements and their ability to apply their learning to life situations. The importance of a good testing program cannot be minimized.

Early Forms of Examinations and Tests

The history of testing may be traced backward in time to the earliest civilizations. In ancient China, competitive written examinations were used for selecting candidates to fill positions in the civil service. Not very much is known, however, about the practices of examinations during the ancient and medieval periods. The idea of formal examinations, as developed in the schools of Europe and America, originated in the medieval universities, which tested candidates for degrees.

In our own country, there has been some form of testing the knowledge of pupils from the earliest days of instruction. The Latin grammar schools, which prepared students for the colleges and the universities, not only tested the memorization of Latin or Greek classics and other subjects day by day, but also gave examinations to discover the fitness of students to enter the universities. As early as 1642, Harvard College stated the requirements for entrance and launched the difficult problem of college-entrance requirements, which has confronted educators down to the present time. Early examinations in our country were either oral or written and consisted almost entirely in testing the memory of the student. Clergymen, educators, and visitors from other countries were often invited to give the oral examinations. The nineteenth century marked the general acceptance of the written examination in the secondary schools, the introduction of the "practical" subjects by the academies and high schools giving this form of testing a great impetus.

The origin of the recent movement in objective testing and educational measurement may be traced in its elementary form as far back as 1864, to the work of the Rev. George Fisher of the Greenwich Hospital School in England. This worthy teacher devised a book of scales containing samples of handwriting arranged according to merit; lists of words for spelling arranged in their order of difficulty; and sample scales for mathematics, navigation, Scripture, knowledge, grammar and composition, French, general history, drawing, and practical science.¹ He believed that pupil achievement could be measured according to his scales, and by such a method he hoped to keep schools up to certain standards year after year. The plan was not generally adopted as Fisher had hoped it would be and it was not until after the opening of the twentieth century that such scales came into general use.

¹ *The Museum, a Quarterly Magazine of Education, Literature, and Science*, 3 (Edinburgh, 1864), pp. 479-484.

The New Measurement Movement

The leader of the new movement of educational measurement was Dr. J. M. Rice, who during the troublous decade of the eighteen-nineties startled the educators of this country by suggesting that the results of the teaching of spelling could be measured by giving to the pupils lists of carefully selected words to be spelled within a limited time. His proposal was greeted with ridicule and sarcasm. Rice continued his work in the face of great opposition and constructed tests for the measurement of spelling, arithmetic, and language. From that time to the present, the new testing movement has rapidly developed, and measurement has been applied to almost all subjects. Opposition to the principle of measurement in education has disappeared.

The new movement got well under way after Thorndike's *Educational Psychology* appeared in 1903 and his *Theory of Mental and Social Measurements* in 1904. For the first time, the theory of educational measurement was presented. The elements of statistical method were placed within the grasp of educators and teachers who had not been specially trained in mathematics or statistics. The years that followed, down to about 1914, mark the first period of the development of educational measurement. Many tests in the various subjects were constructed, and there was much experimentation.

The rise and progress of the new movement of educational measurement have been due to many factors. The apparent defects in the traditional method of testing were the chief of these. The subjectivity in grading the essay-type examination was emphasized by the proponents of the new movement. Grades given on the essay-type examination, it was pointed out, were subject to two kinds of errors, constant and variable. The former is seen in the tendency of some teachers to give high grades continually and of others to give low grades. A variable error results from the natural tendency of competent persons to vary in their judgments when they grade papers of equal worth, and it may be due to changes in one's physical condition and disposition at the time of grading, as well as to one's attitude toward the various pupils. In the investigations of the grading of examination papers, it was shown that teachers varied widely in their judgments. While such grading was being criticized, the new techniques arose of constructing questions that required objective responses made by underlining, checking, matching, numbering, or filling in a word or, at most, a phrase. Since definite answers must be given, scoring has become mechanical and also objective. As a result of the movement, there has developed a higher conception of educational measurement and statistics, as well as the standardization of tests.

In addition to the criticisms of the subjectivity of the essay-type examination, other factors have played a part in promoting the new measurement movement. The increasing number of pupils attending schools during the past generation and the rapid growth of large school systems have necessitated simpler forms of administration in all its phases, including the work of testing. The desire on the part of administrators to make testing scientific has also aided the movement. Finally, the work of modern psychology in this field has played an important part in giving impetus to the movement.

From about 1914 to the present time, the expansion of the measurement movement in education has been rapid. Many have entered the new field, and a large number of tests have been constructed. With such a large amount of experimentation, it is not surprising that some of the new tests have proved worthless. Many, however, are of value and have been standardized. Most of the experimentation has been conducted in the elementary schools. Only within recent years have the tests been used in the secondary schools, where the progress of the measurement movement has been slow. In this way, however, many mistakes of the earlier years of experimentation have been avoided. The factors that have retarded the movement in the high schools, especially in the social studies, include the idea of the domination of the colleges over the high schools regarding college entrance requirements, the smaller amount of supervision in high schools than in elementary schools, and the lack of a sharp definition of aims as well as content of the high-school subjects.

Essay-type Tests versus New-type Tests

Much may still be said for the use of the essay-type examination, especially in the social studies. As employed at the present time, this form of test can disclose not only a pupil's general knowledge of a subject but many other things as well. Interpretation, the expression of individual opinion, the comprehension of a subject as a whole, the interrelation of topics in a particular field, and the discussion of controversial subjects cannot be given by the pupil through the use of the new-type tests. The essay-type examination is admirable for these purposes. Although it may be more subjective than the new-type test, the essay form of examination has many other advantages, for only from it can neatness, grammatical structure, paragraph unity, and spelling be measured. These factors should count, at least to some degree, even in the social studies; for together with the results obtained from the study of a particular subject, they make up, in general, a measure of intellectual achievement. Objections have been raised that teachers in the social studies should not consider anything in examination but the subject matter of their own

field, because neatness, grammatical structure, and spelling belong to the English class. This would be true if the social studies consisted of nothing but the learning of facts. But when the aims of modern education are considered, these factors cannot be neglected in any of the classes.

The chief advantages of the new-type over the essay-type test are: (1) The new-type test is more comprehensive than the essay-type test, since it is possible in thirty minutes to give from fifty to one hundred questions, instead of four or five. Any test is a mere sampling, and the pupil's chance for finding in the range of questions those which represent samples of his knowledge increases with the number of items. The larger number of items in a test makes it more reliable. Many statistical studies show that reliability increases as the number of questions increase and at the same ratio. (2) The mechanics of answering are reduced to a minimum. The filling in of an incomplete form, the underlining of a word, or the circling of a number makes possible the larger sampling of questions. This economizes the pupil's time and also the teacher's task of checking the test. (3) For reasons already given, the new-type test is more objective than any other form. On the other hand, there are some disadvantages: (1) The objective tests require much greater care and much more time to construct. (2) They do not provide the opportunity for training in organization or in the expression of opinion or thought. (3) They require the use of mimeographed sheets, with the exception of the true-false or recall, which may be dictated, but with limitations. Objective tests, many of them standardized, can, of course, be purchased in printed form. The cost, however, makes it impossible for many schools to secure these at the present time.

Standardized and Informal New-type Tests

New-type tests may be divided into two groups: standardized and informal new-type tests. A standardized test is one that has been given to large numbers of unselected pupils in different parts of the country. From the results, "grade norms" are secured from the median score for each grade. "Age norms" are also obtained by assembling the scores on the basis of the chronological ages of the pupils. Informal new-type tests are objective tests constructed by the teacher.

In comparing these two kinds, certain advantages in favor of the standardized tests are obvious. The norms that have been established enable the teacher to compare the work of his pupils with others. However, care must be taken, as the norms that are general in nature cannot be used as a standard for pupils of all communities. Another advantage can be seen in the fact that the tests are made by experts who are more proficient in test construction than the average teacher. As a result, they are more

reliable. Also, many standardized tests possess two equivalent forms, which enable the teacher to test the same group at different times. By such a procedure, pupil progress can be more accurately measured.

On the other hand, the standardized test is open to criticism. It may be questioned whether anyone but the teacher can devise suitable means of measuring the outcome that he expects to obtain as a result of his teaching. Teachers often differ in their emphasis; classes are different in their needs. Examinations, therefore, should be based on what is taught and not on what someone thinks should be taught. It would be foolish for a teacher who does not take up the social aspects of history to give a standardized test in which that phase is a factor. Teachers should evaluate critically such tests, in order to find those which will fit their needs.

Even though printed objective tests and standardized tests cannot be obtained in many of the schools, owing to their expense, the teacher can construct his own and, through practice, perfect himself in the technique of constructing and administering informal new-type tests. The part that these should play in teaching procedure will be discussed later. The general forms of the new-type tests will now be described.

Recall, or Question-and-answer, Form. The simplest form of the new-type test in the social studies is the recall, or question-and-answer, form. It consists in asking a direct question having one definite answer and is suited to the recall of the names of men and dates. For example:

1. Who wrote the Declaration of Independence? _____
2. In what year was George Washington inaugurated? _____

Various statistical studies show this form to be the most reliable of all forms of tests.

Completion Form. In some ways, the completion form is similar to the recall type, and the names are used interchangeably by some writers. Strictly speaking, however, the completion form is that type of test in which a single-word or a phrase answer is required in two or more parts of the sentence, in order to complete it. For example:

The Declaration of Independence was drawn up by _____ in the year _____.

It is perhaps needless to state that this type of test should be limited to the response of definite facts.

True-false or Yes-no Form. The true-false form is the best known of the new-type tests. It presents a challenge to pupils in training them to scrutinize plausible statements in order to determine whether each is true or false. This form of test has been severely criticized on the ground that it is pedagogically unsound to place before the pupil an incorrect statement. Critics of this form of test have stated that when true and false

statements are spread out before pupils, impressions of the false statements remain after schoolwork is done. It has been claimed that, since most pupils are visualizers, such a test might result in "a blur, a confusion, a mystification, from which the escape mayhap is by means of a guess. . . . On the familiar principle that a lie travels fast and far, a false statement has at least as good a chance to live on in the memory as has a true one."² This difficulty may be overcome by going over the items with the class after the test has been scored and returned to the pupils, pointing out the true and the false statements.

The chief criticism directed at this form of test is that the element of chance is high and that the pupils do much guessing. This is true, as statistical studies show. In several studies, the true-false form is given the lowest reliability of all the forms analyzed. On account of this, a relatively large number of items should be placed in the test—at least from fifty to two hundred statements—when this kind is not given in connection with other forms of the new-type tests.

Still another serious criticism of the true-false form of test is that it is likely to reflect the personal opinion of the maker. In the social studies, especially, pupils should be encouraged to think, reason, and judge independently. Therefore great care must be taken not to include in any statement the personal opinion of the teacher. To work out a true-false test including a large number of items requires much thought, time, and ingenuity. Some examples of the true-false tests are as follows:

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. The United States Supreme Court Justices are elected by the people. | T | F |
| 2. Revenue bills must originate in the lower house of Congress. | T | F |

The yes-no form is similar to the true-false form, except that "yes" or "no" must be underscored or circled as an answer, thus:

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 1. Are the United States Supreme Court Justices elected by the people? | Yes | No |
| 2. Must revenue bills originate in the House of Representatives? | Yes | No |

Multiple-choice Form. There are several kinds of multiple-choice questions. The simplest involve little more than recognition. For example:

The Declaration of Independence was signed in 1765, 1776, 1781, 1789.

Another type of the multiple-choice form is as follows:

The government established by the United States in Puerto Rico in 1900 was most like:

- (a) our state governments
- (b) our federal government
- (c) our old territorial governments
- (d) the old English form of colonial government

The best-answer type of the multiple-choice form presents several sug-

² C. A. DWIGHT, "What Is False about 'True and False'?" *Educational Method*, 10 (June, 1931), pp. 557-558.

gested responses, usually three to six in number, from which the best answer is to be selected. The chief advantage of this type lies in the longer statements possible and the securing of objectivity without restricting the solutions to one word or phrase. Some makers of tests claim that this type may be used for examining judgment and reasoning power. These tests do not appear, however, to be more than a measure of the ability to recognize a right answer. An example of this type is as follows:

- _____ The most tangible result of granting women the right to vote has been to
- A. bring about a higher moral tone in politics.
 - B. prevent poorly qualified candidates from being elected to office.
 - C. increase the amount of social legislation.
 - D. increase the number of votes.
 - E. increase expenditures for educational purposes.³

Multiple-choice forms are increasing in popularity in the social studies chiefly because of the high rating in reliability given this form of test by several studies.

Time-sequence Form. In history especially, the time element is important. Not more than four or five items should be given in each question or sequence of this form, for one error might cause the entire answer to be wrong. The sequences or groups should represent varying degrees of difficulty. From its nature, this form should not be used alone but should form part of a test in which other new-type forms are included. An example of this type is as follows:

Indicate the chronological order of the events in the following group by numbering the items 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| _____ Kansas-Nebraska Act | _____ John Brown's Raid |
| _____ Dred Scott Decision | _____ Lincoln-Douglas Debates |
| _____ Compromise of 1850 | |

Matching Form. The matching form is best suited to measure the understanding of relationships, including cause and effect. The following is an example:

Place the number of each item in column 1 beside the name in column 2 that best corresponds with the item:

- | Column 1 | Column 2 |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Father of the Constitution | _____ Thomas Jefferson |
| 2. Spoils System | _____ Henry Clay |
| 3. Compromise of 1850 | _____ John C. Calhoun |
| 4. States Rights | _____ Harriet B. Stowe |
| 5. Uncle Tom's Cabin | _____ James Buchanan |
| | _____ James Madison |
| | _____ Andrew Jackson |

³ W. J. MICHEELS and M. R. KARNES, *Measuring Educational Achievement* (New York, 1950), p. 166.

A larger number of items are usually placed in column 2 than in column 1 in order to prevent the correct solution to some of the items being made merely by a process of elimination. The cause-and-effect type of this form may be worked out as follows:

Three of the following events are the cause of the other one. Find the one which is the result of the other three and check it.

- _____ 1. Holy Alliance
- _____ 2. Monroe Doctrine
- _____ 3. Russian Claims in North America
- _____ 4. Revolt of the Spanish American Colonies

Miscellaneous Forms. Among other forms of tests, map tests should be used not only in geography but in the other social studies as well. Outline maps can be utilized to test the pupil's knowledge of the location of historic places, famous cities, historic happenings, industrial centers, and a variety of similar information. Other tests that should be considered and used by the teacher of the social studies include tests of interpreting maps, graphs, and cartoons and the analyzing of a paragraph or more of printed material from a textbook or a reference book. The thoughtful teacher can devise a variety of tests that will be interesting to the pupil and will test the ability of interpreting and analyzing, as well as a wide range of information.

Attempts are being made to apply the new-type tests to the measurement of attitudes. Two difficulties immediately appear when attempts are made to measure attitudes. Pupils frequently give the response that they think the teacher desires, thus defeating the purpose of the test. The end sought is also defeated when the pupil realizes the value of good attitudes and, in a test, will answer the questions correctly and yet, in actual life, will not bring that attitude to bear upon the problems that he is called upon to face. The following is an attempt in this direction:

On attitude scales . . . the pupil is often asked to check for each item or statement the one of five responses which states most accurately how he himself feels about it: *Strongly agree. Agree. Undecided. Disagree. Strongly disagree.*

No group should be ridiculed because of its religious practices. (*Tolerance.*)

A school strike would be a good way to protest against an undesirable school regulation. (*School rules.*)

A student should pick up another student's waste paper without being asked by the teacher. (*School responsibility.*)

No one should be expected to pay attention in class to anything which is uninteresting. (*Courtesy.*)

A difficult task should be worked out by a group of students. (*Cooperation.*)

The chance to attend a school party thrills me. (*Social participation.*) ⁴

⁴ H. R. DOUGLASS and H. H. MILLS, *Teaching in High School* (New York, 1948), p. 440.

A pupil in such a test might do the opposite from his professed knowledge. It is doubtful whether the intangible elements that make up character will ever be subject to definite measurement. This opinion has been summed up as follows:

In their efforts to measure environment, conduct, honesty, good citizenship, service, knowledge of right and wrong, self-control, will, temperament, and judgment, the testers are dealing with matters that are not susceptible of mathematical description. The assignment of values to ethical and aesthetic experiences is meaningless to contemporary social knowledge and thought.⁵

Little progress has been made in measuring reasoning power and judgment in the social studies. Few reasoning tests are objective in this field and most of those which are objective require little more than recognizing the right answer. The same is true of the attempts made to develop tests of judgment. The following is a part of one of the tests in the field:

Place a check after that phrase which you think is the wisest idea with which to complete the statement.

1. The statement made by William Howard Taft that "the administration of criminal law in the U.S. is a disgrace to civilization" should be
 - (a) kept out of school textbooks, because these books should not teach criticism of our government. _____
 - (b) made known to all, as a challenge to improve American criminal procedure. _____
 - (c) investigated by our officials, but other citizens need not bother about it.⁶ _____

A study of such tests raises the question whether or not they consist in anything more than recognizing the best answer. However, the problem of testing original thinking and judgment is being recognized, and much experimentation is taking place at the present time along these lines. The future holds much promise of success in this field.

The foregoing items are usually included in enumerations of new-type tests, but it is not necessary to limit them to these forms alone. They may be worked out in various combinations. Any question that can be scored objectively may be used if it is satisfactory in other respects. The questions should be specific and not ambiguous, demanding a definite answer so that scoring may be objective. The instructions to each form must be clear and simple in order not to bewilder the pupil before he begins. Finally, questions should be representative of the materials of instruction that they are supposed to measure. It can be seen by the preceding

⁵ American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, *Conclusions and Recommendations*, p. 94.

⁶ ALICE N. GIBBONS, *Tests in the Social Studies* (Philadelphia, 1928), p. 123.

discussion that little more than factual knowledge can be measured by these tests at the present time.

The Best Form of Test in the Social Studies

The new-type tests provide the teacher with a more efficient measurement on account of their objectivity. Though many adherents of the new-type tests advocate their use entirely, even to the exclusion of the old essay-type tests, it is evident from what has been said that the best tests in the social studies are those which are made up of a combination of all, including especially the essay-type, because there are certain traits that the new-type test does not measure. The following is an example of an informal test, which may be used in a course in American history in the junior high school for the first term:

HISTORY EXAMINATION—JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

First Semester

1. From the list at the right of the page select the names of two men who were prominent in the period in which they lived and write those names under the name of the period in which they were prominent:

A. Period of Exploration and Discovery

1

2

B. Period of Colonial Growth

1

2

C. Revolutionary War Period

1

2

D. First Quarter of the Nineteenth Century

1

2

Magellan

John Cabot

Washington

John Smith

Monroe

William Penn

Paul Revere

Walter Raleigh

Peter Stuyvesant

Madison
2. Write each name in the following list under the colony with which each was associated: John Winthrop; Sir Edmund Andros; Peter Minuit; John Smith; Lord Baltimore; John Endicott; Governor Dale; Sir William Berkeley; Peter Stuyvesant.

Massachusetts

Virginia

New York

Maryland
3. Number the following events in the order of their happening:

Stamp Act

Defeat of the Spanish Armada

Articles of Confederation

New England Confederacy

Declaration of Independence
4. Name the American leader connected with the following:

(a) Writing of the Declaration of Independence

- (b) Burgoyne's Defeat
 - (c) The Establishment of the First Bank of the United States
 - (d) Commander-in-chief of the American Army in the Revolution
 - (e) Plot to deliver West Point into the hands of the British
 - (f) Capture of Ticonderoga
5. Some of the following statements are right and some are wrong. Mark those which are right with a T for true and those which are wrong with an F for false.
- (a) The Stamp Act increased the postage rate in the American Colonies. _____
 - (b) William Pitt championed the cause of the Colonists in the English Parliament. _____
 - (c) The Colonists did not object to taxation by England. _____
 - (d) The Writs of Assistance pleased the Colonists. _____
 - (e) The Townshend Act was a direct tax. _____
 - (f) The Sugar Act caused smuggling. _____
 - (g) King George put capable men in office. _____
 - (h) England did not punish Boston for its "Tea Party." _____
 - (i) Robert Morris helped to win the Revolution by lending money to the Colonial cause. _____
 - (j) George Rogers Clark led an expedition to the Northwest during the Revolution. _____
 - (k) The new nation received Florida by the Treaty of Paris. _____
 - (l) France obtained a part of Canada after the Revolution. _____
 - (m) The Ordinance of 1787 provided a plan of government for the Northwest Territory. _____
 - (n) Patrick Henry favored the ratifying of the Constitution. _____
 - (o) The Constitution authorizes the President to appoint a cabinet. _____
 - (p) Hamilton proposed that the foreign debt be paid. _____
 - (q) Genêt tried to get the U.S. to help France during the French Revolution. _____
 - (r) The "Whisky Rebellion" was caused by the government's forbidding the farmers to make whisky. _____
 - (s) John Marshall was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. _____
 - (t) New States were added to the Union during Washington's administrations. _____
6. Draw a line under the word that makes the sentence true:
- (a) The Quakers came from England, France, Spain.
 - (b) The Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776, 1789, 1781.
 - (c) The first white man to see the Pacific Ocean was Balboa, Cabot, Vespuccius.
 - (d) In the Revolution, America was helped by England, France, Germany.
7. What was the first form of government which the United States adopted? What change became necessary and why?
8. Write concerning the settlement of Pennsylvania telling: (a) Reason for settling. (b) How the land was obtained. (c) Government. (d) Treatment of the Indians. (e) Character of the population. (f) Why it progressed so rapidly.
9. The following questions arose during the making of the Constitution:
- (a) How should the states be represented in Congress?
 - (b) Should the slaves be counted in determining the number of representatives?
 - (c) By whom should commerce be regulated?
 - (d) Should the slave trade continue?
- State what agreement was reached in each case.
10. What four important powers are given to Congress by the Constitution?

The New-type Tests, a More Efficient Measure of Achievement

The new-type tests are a more efficient means of measuring educational outcomes, not only because of their objectivity, comprehensiveness, and ease of administration and scoring, but also because of the statistical methods that the new movement has developed. For a study of statistical methods, the reader is referred to such books as H. H. Remmers and N. L. Gage, *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*, or to H. A. Greene, A. N. Jorgensen, and J. R. Gerberich, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School*. Merely a few of the outstanding improvements will be mentioned here.

The *rank method*, or *rank order*, has been made possible by the extended scale of distribution that has resulted from the use of the new-type tests. By the rank method, a pupil's mark is determined by his position relative to the other pupils of the class on a scale of distribution. Instead of a grade expressed in terms of percentage with a passing mark of 60 or 70 per cent, marks are assigned in terms of rank order. This method of ranking pupils in the order of their achievements can be used in connection with the results of subjective tests, but it is better adapted to the new objective type because of the possible wider range in the scores of the latter.

The *median* of a set of scores is the middle score when the scores are arranged in order of size. This may be used not only to show whether an individual pupil is above or below the median of his class but, if standardized tests are used, to compare the median score of the grade with the median scores of the same grade elsewhere. In order to obtain a more detailed comparison, the *percentile* system may be used. This makes it possible to locate pupils in several groups. The median of the upper half of the scores is found, and all the scores above this median are in the upper quartile. All scores below the median of the lower half of the total scores are in the lower quartile. The middle half of the scores are those between the upper and lower quartiles. For a still more detailed comparison of the achievements of pupils, additional percentile marks are being used. In some schools, the following have been used: 99, 90, 80, 75, 70, 60, 50, 40, 30, 25, 20, 10, 1. These thirteen percentile marks now make it possible to classify a pupil in any one of thirteen groups. They make it possible to say that a pupil has a score higher than that made by 99 per cent of the pupils in his group, or that made by 90 per cent of the group, and so on down the percentiles.

Statistical studies prove the reliability or unreliability of the new-type tests, and many such studies have been made. Reliability, as applied to

statistical studies, means the extent to which the same scores are made by the same pupils in two or more trials of the test or similar tests. The reliability of a test is expressed in the terms of correlation, called the coefficient of reliability. The greater the objectivity and length of a test, other things being equal, the greater is its reliability. The term "validity," which is also used in statistical studies, indicates the nearness that a test measures what it purports or is designed to measure. At present, tests in the social studies measure little more than factual knowledge.

New-type Tests as Teaching Aids

Examinations, tests, and quizzes, whether oral or written, can be made to contribute to the efficiency of teaching. The new-type test is especially adapted for this. Naturally, a comprehensive test should be given after each unit of work is completed, but this is not enough. A five- or ten-minute test on the homework or study assignment should be given from time to time while the unit is being studied. Such tests, given at the beginning or at the close of the class period, will be an incentive to continual, careful work on the part of the pupil, and the results can be recorded by the pupil by means of a graph sheet in order to note his progress. Through the use of short tests at frequent intervals, the teacher can discover weaknesses in his teaching and apply remedial measures.

Such teaching tests can easily be given. At times they should consist of carefully worked-out, mixed new-type tests in mimeographed form. More frequently they may be given orally by the teacher in the form of true-false and recall tests, the answer to be numbered and written down by the pupil usually in one word. Each question should be dictated only once by the teacher, unless some unavoidable noise, such as a loud cough, makes it absolutely necessary to repeat it. After each item is dictated, the teacher should wait a moment in order to give the pupils time to think and to write the answer.

The marking of the tests would impose a hardship on the teacher if he were to do it all himself. There is no need for this, however, as the scoring can be done by the pupils themselves. Papers may be exchanged and marked as the teacher calls out the right answer to each item. Corrected papers should be returned to the teacher and kept by him. This will permit the use of the same questions at some future time. If the teacher does not care to have the class score their papers, a pupil assistant may do so, with the aid of a key worked out by the teacher. Each pupil, however, should be required to keep a record of his own scores as the tests are given from time to time. He should be required to work out an individual graph and be given encouragement to keep his line on the upward trend. When the unit of work is complete, each pupil should fig-

ure from his graph the average for the entire period covered by the unit, by dividing the sum of his scores by the number of tests taken. This score should be included in the entire achievement of the pupils. There is great value in having the pupil's record visually before him as he progresses in the subject. Then there is the opportunity to take home a weekly report to parents, so that progress in that particular subject may be noted oftener than at the end of each month or at the end of the term.

The Teacher's Evaluation of the Pupil

Educational literature contains many articles on the testing program. Much of it overemphasizes various aspects of the examination. The fact that two markers give a test a widely differing mark may be of little significance in the final evaluation of the pupil. It may serve merely to emphasize that teaching cannot be separated from examining. In considering a pupil's work in the social studies, many factors must be taken into account. A single final examination at the end of the term would be a poor means to judge the entire work of the pupil. Daily work, unit examinations, and periodic quizzes should all be recognized in making the evaluation. The problem is further complicated by extra work done by the pupil. If two pupils have about the same marks in examinations but one has done extensive reading, naturally he deserves a higher grade than the other. It can easily be seen that the final mark must be more or less subjective. The teacher must decide what weight each part of his evaluation program will have. Needless to say, he should strive to be as objective as possible.

The teacher must also recognize in the testing part of the program that one of the aims is to influence pupils to work up to their full capacities. For this reason, teachers must be familiar with their pupils. The intelligence quotient and past achievement marks should be known. Care must be taken, however, that such information does not influence the marking of the papers or the final evaluation of the pupil.

In newer programs of testing, the term "evaluation" is displacing the old word "examination." The work of evaluation is not a formal process but a natural one, conforming to lifelike situations in the school. It should be a part of the teaching process and not a periodic ordeal. It should be continuous and take into consideration the reactions and behavior of pupils, rather than isolated facts. The anecdotal record has come into increasing use. It is a "cumulative record consisting of accounts of pertinent, characteristic actions and conversations of an individual as noted and written by the teacher and/or any cooperating officer with whom the individual has had close contact."⁷ Opportunities for self-evaluation by pupils should also be included in the evaluation program. Through be-

⁷ C. V. Good (Ed.), *Dictionary of Education* (New York, 1945), p. 334.

havior journals, diaries, and other devices, each pupil can take part in understanding himself and in measuring his progress, not only in knowledge and understanding but also in behavior, especially such aspects as the development of worth-while attitudes, motives, and standards, as well as cooperative activities.

Tests for Diagnostic Purposes

The recent changes in the philosophy of education and therefore in the procedure of instruction involve a most careful diagnosis of the work of pupils and a better fitting of work to their needs. Diagnostic tests are being developed in many subjects. The difference between a general-survey new-type test and a diagnostic test is that the former deals with general information for the purpose of determining the effectiveness of instruction, whereas the latter deals with such information as will reveal the weaknesses of pupils so that instruction may be adjusted to individual needs. It can be seen that any reliable and valid test yields diagnostic results to a certain degree. Through diagnostic tests, the teacher may find the kinds of work that his pupils can do well and what they cannot do. A general new-type test serves to locate pupils who are not up to the standard of their own group or groups. The purpose of diagnostic tests is to reveal the exact nature of the difficulties of the pupils.

Diagnostic tests are being used effectively in arithmetic and reading; but in the social studies, because of the complexity of the subject matter and the difficulty of measuring the various outcomes, few tests for the diagnosis of learning difficulties have been worked out. A few which have appeared in the field of history are designed to measure such types of historical ability as comprehension, chronological judgment, historical evidence, evaluation of facts, and casual relationships. The development of tests for the diagnosis of learning difficulties has only just begun in the study of history, and some work is being done toward this end in the other social studies.

Reading comprehension is an exceedingly important factor in the social studies. Many diagnostic tests have been well worked out for testing reading ability. In the tests that have been standardized, the interpretation of scores is simplified by norms or standards established in terms of age and grade. Since one of the greatest difficulties encountered by pupils in the social studies is the understanding of what they read, such tests are valuable to the teacher of the social studies. Reading comprehension is largely a matter of training and application among many students, although pupils of inferior mental ability will always have difficulty with their reading. Tests in reading comprehension may be given from time to time in order to find out the progress made by the pupil in this respect. To the capable pupil who is not achieving in proportion to

his intelligence, the knowledge of his rating is a challenge to better work.

In many school systems at the present time, it is impossible to secure standardized tests in reading, on account of the expense involved. An estimate of the reading comprehension of the pupil and his rate of reading, however, can be obtained by an informal test worked out by the teacher. One or two paragraphs of reading material in the social studies should be carefully selected from a textbook. Questions should be carefully prepared to test the pupil's comprehension of this material. A definite, limited amount of time should be given to the class for the reading of the paragraphs and the answering of the questions. After the results are scored, the standing of each pupil in rank order may be obtained. Remedial measures may follow by teaching and drilling the weak pupils in improved methods of reading.

Measuring Vocabulary in the Social Studies. The measurement of vocabulary in the various social studies is also important. Such tests have been published and show high correlation with reading tests. The importance of vocabulary in the social studies has already been pointed out. If it is not possible for the teacher to obtain a printed standardized test, he may work out a test himself. The following is an example of the arrangement that a vocabulary test may take:

Underline the word that best corresponds to the definition:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. To charge a public official with misconduct in office. | (a) assessment (b) impeachment (c) arbitration (d) disenfranchisement (e) emancipation |
| 2. To take sides with neither of two contestants. | (a) plurality (b) propaganda (c) alliance (d) belligerence (e) neutrality |
| 3. To ascertain the people's attitude toward proposed legislation by submitting it to direct popular vote. | (a) initiative (b) primary (c) caucus (d) referendum (e) boycott |
| 4. To extend national power by acquiring new territory. | (a) imperialism (b) protection (c) autonomy (d) self-determination (e) dictatorship |
| 5. To refuse the approval of legislative enactment. | (a) decree (b) recall (c) veto (d) bloc (e) cloture |

Tests of this sort may be used to advantage throughout the course. In this way, the progress of the pupils in regard to their vocabulary may be determined and remedial training be given to those who need it.

The Rise of Intelligence Tests

The development of intelligence tests runs to some extent parallel with that of tests of educational measurement. The origin of intelligence testing may be traced back to the work of Galton, Cattell, Binet, Kraepelin, and Ebbinghaus during the latter part of the nineteenth century. During the eighteen-nineties, when Rice was formulating his tests for the measurement of spelling, Alfred Binet was at work in France planning mental or intelligence tests and, as a result of his work, laid the foundation for the measurement of intelligence.

The difference between tests designed to measure intelligence and those designed to measure a pupil's mastery of subject matter and other instructional outcomes is not difficult to understand. Intelligence tests deal with experiences common to the lives of large groups of people and, especially, with the ability to meet problematic situations. They do not, in general, represent the results of direct formal training in school subjects. Educational measurements deal with the experiences of the pupil that have been a part of his school training in the various school subjects.

Binet continued to work in the field of mental testing during the last few years of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century. In 1904, he was appointed a member of a French government commission charged with the duty of studying measures for the education of defective children. By 1905, Binet and his coworker Simon had devised tests designed to measure mental capacity. In their intelligence scale of 1908, Binet and Simon introduced the important concept of *mental age*. Although the Binet scale was soon introduced into America, it had comparatively little influence on the rising educational measurement movement. There were several reasons for this. It had been worked out for use in France and needed adaptation to American pupils; the tests had to be administered individually; and their early use was connected with the measurement of feeble-minded and mentally defective persons. Among those who first used the Binet scale in this country were Henry Goddard of Vineland, New Jersey, and F. Kuhlman, who used it in connection with his work at Faribault, Minnesota, where he was studying subnormal children. Both of these men revised it during the years 1911 and 1912; and from that time, there have been many revisions and adaptations of the Binet scale.

The influence of the Binet-Simon test in the United States dates from about 1912, when Terman and Childs revised it and extended its scale.

In 1916, Terman made another revision, which was called the Stanford Revision of the Binet Test. Owing to the fact that this test has to be administered individually and cannot be used as a group test, it has not been introduced to any great extent into the American public schools.

Just prior to the entrance of the United States into the First World War, A. S. Otis had been working at Stanford University under the direction of Terman on a test of intelligence that could be administered to large groups at the same time. When the United States became a participant in the war, in 1917, the materials that Otis had gathered were placed in the hands of a committee appointed by the government to formulate mental tests suitable for the examination of large numbers of soldiers. The Army Alpha Tests were the result. During the war, the intelligence-testing movement gained momentum in this country; and, shortly after the war had ended, many group tests were in use. Among these were the Dearborn, Haggerty, Miller, Otis, Pressey, Terman, and Thorndike tests.

When the tests were first introduced into the public schools, they were poorly administered in many places and the results were of little value. The first stages of experimentation naturally resulted in many failures. In 1919, the General Education Board granted the National Research Council \$25,000 for the purpose of research in this field. The results were the National Intelligence Tests.

From the close of the First World War to the present time, the popularity of intelligence tests in the schools has increased, and all forward-looking schools use them in some form or other. They are used for four different purposes: (1) as a basis for classification so the pupils may be grouped according to their abilities; (2) for the interpretation of measures of achievement, that is, for finding out whether or not pupils are working up to their abilities; (3) as an aid to pupils in selecting subjects and courses in accord with their mental ability; (4) as an aid in meeting the difficult problems of vocational guidance. In using ratings of mental ability it is necessary to bear in mind the fact that intelligence tests have limitations. The intelligence quotient obtained from the scores of a single group test of this sort is a significant indication of intelligence, but not necessarily an absolute measure of it. Intelligence, as measured by tests, is a complex interweaving of innate and acquired characteristics and abilities. These require interpretation that is exceedingly difficult in a group test. The results of intelligence tests, therefore, should be used only in connection with all the available information about a pupil.

Obtaining Tests and Scales

Schools are becoming more and more aware of the need for a testing program. A few schools have one member of the faculty devote full time

to this important phase of education. Most teachers, however, must work out their own programs with the help of the principal. The problem of finding suitable tests is often difficult. So many new tests are being published that it is hard to keep up to date. Commercial companies prepare lists of their achievement, educational, intelligence, and other tests and scales. Book lists of many tests from various sources have been prepared. However, they soon get out of date unless they are constantly revised. Among the books covering the field are *A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*, by Gertrude H. Hildreth (1946), and *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by O. K. Buros (1949).

In 1930 the Cooperative Test Service was organized by the American Council on Education with the financial support of a ten-year grant from the General Education Board. In the following years, under the Council's Committee on Measurement and Guidance, Cooperative Achievement Tests were developed in the important subject-matter areas at the high-school and college levels. In 1948 the Cooperative Test Service became the Cooperative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service, a new organization formed by the merger of the testing offices of the American Council on Education, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the College Entrance Examination Board. The Educational Testing Service, which is a nonprofit corporation, constructs and distributes tests for high schools and colleges. It also provides services in the field of testing and conducts several national testing programs.

Summary

Measurement and evaluation have become a part of the modern teaching program. Examining and testing in formal education may be traced back to ancient times, but it was not until the last decade of the nineteenth century that the educational measurement movement arose. The widespread use of new-type tests bears witness to the importance of this movement in American education. The essay-type examination still has much value in the social studies; for it can be made a measure of interpretation, comprehension, and individual opinion. It should be used in combination with the new-type tests. Among objective tests are the recall or question-and-answer, completion, true-false, multiple-choice, sequence, and matching forms. Attempts are being made to devise tests and scales for measuring attitudes, reasoning power, judgment, and character, and some progress has been made beyond the measurement of factual knowledge. The chief values of the new-type tests are found in their objectivity and in their provision of a more efficient measure of achievement. At the present stage, the shortcomings as well as the values of the new-type tests should be recognized. Teachers should master the technique of measure-

ment, in order to devise and administer informal new-type tests. If possible, standardized tests should be used from time to time, so as to compare the work of the class and pupils with the standards, which have been secured by giving the tests to large numbers of pupils. In any testing program, many factors must be considered in the final evaluation of the pupil.

The rise of intelligence tests runs parallel with educational measurement, beginning about the same time. The earliest intelligence tests were for individuals. During the First World War, there was much experimentation in connection with group intelligence tests. Many group tests are being used today. Intelligence tests are used as a basis of classification, for interpreting measures of achievement, as an aid to pupils in selecting courses in accord with their mental ability, and as an aid in vocational guidance. It is well to bear in mind that intelligence tests have limitations and that group tests are sometimes difficult to interpret. Such tests, therefore, should be used together with all the knowledge that a teacher can secure about his pupils.

Questions

1. Trace the rise and progress of the educational measurement movement.
2. Show the values in the use of the essay-type examination in the social studies.
3. Discuss the values and shortcomings of the new-type tests.
4. What are the advantages of standardized tests?
5. Why has but little progress been made in devising tests to measure attitudes, reasoning power, judgment, and character?
6. What improvements in statistical methods have resulted from the educational measurement movement?
7. Discuss the status of diagnostic tests in the social studies.
8. How may informal tests of reading ability be constructed and administered by teachers of the social studies?
9. What factors should be considered in evaluating the work of the pupil at the end of a course?
10. Distinguish between intelligence tests and educational measurement tests.
11. Trace the development of the intelligence-testing movement.
12. What is meant by the statement that an intelligence quotient derived from the scores of a single group test is a significant indication of intelligence, but not necessarily an absolute measure of it?

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CHAPTER XVIII

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

Social and Civic Education

That social and civic training is a very important part of the work of the school is now a universally accepted fact. Although much time and thought have been devoted to this phase of education, it still remains to a great extent in a nebulous and unsatisfactory condition. Critics of American education have pointed out that we have the most expensive system of education in the world, yet it is not entirely effective in developing wholesome citizenship. In the past, American education has tended to emphasize the development of the individual for personal efficiency. Such a philosophy has resulted in selfish individualism, the main aim being to train pupils to get ahead in the world. A system of education that does not provide for the needs of society as well as for the needs of the individual can never function successfully in a democracy.

The American educational system has achieved much in producing literate citizens. If it is to become a power in American life, however, it must produce not only an informed citizenry but also citizens keenly aware of public questions and problems, critically observant of the acts of their duly elected representatives, conscientious in all their relationships, and possessing the desire to do all that they can to bring about the ideals of a truly democratic society. The schools cannot ignore present conditions, with the injustices, vulgarities, and corruption manifest in our modern society. They must train pupils effectively, so that the citizens of the future will take a common interest and an active part in good government as well as exercise a high and fearless morality in their social relationships.

An examination of social trends and emerging problems indicates that changes are necessary in the process of social and civic education within the schools and without. The present political and economic conditions in the United States, the rapid social changes that are the result of invention and technology, and our ever-shifting relationships with the rest of the world require a serious study of the needs and possibilities of social and civic education.

Never in the history of American education has it been so necessary for the schools to readjust their work to accord with the social and eco-

conomic changes wrought by two world wars. The discovery of atomic energy and the many serious problems resulting from the Second World War have created a different conception of world relationships. The necessity for changes in the techniques and content of teaching the social studies—and in other fields as well—is urgent. In a world in which the products of scientific inventiveness have so greatly outstripped their social and political controls, a varied and an intelligent program of social education must be adopted and carried through.

Agencies for Social and Civic Education

The school is by far the most important agency for social and civic education, but many other agencies contribute to such an end. The family, the church, the social group and the various social and patriotic organizations are vital instruments in shaping the ideas and actions of social living. The influence of the family and the church, although not so powerful as formerly—for both have lost much of their regulatory control over behavior—cannot be ignored in a consideration of social and civic training. The social group and the different organizations are powerful educational agencies, especially through the interchange of ideas. Other agencies constantly at work in molding the American citizen include the press, the forum, motion pictures, radio, and television. Education of a social and civic nature, therefore, is accomplished through many agencies, but the most influential and outstanding is the school.

Almost all the studies of the secondary-school curriculum can contribute in a greater or lesser degree to social and civic education. The social studies, however, by virtue of their aims and content, can be focused directly on social behavior and are, therefore, of great importance in citizenship training. In view of present-day conditions, many educators have suggested that the social studies be made the core of the curriculum and that the entire school program be made the agency for social and civic education. Such a plan has been put into practice in many schools.

Social and civic education must begin in the elementary grades and continue throughout school life. It must be a continuous process. As the pupil passes from grade to grade, his increasing maturity makes possible the development of attitudes and relationships that are impracticable in the lower grades. It is beyond the scope of this book to discuss in detail social and civic training in the elementary school, and therefore discussion will center in citizenship training in the secondary school. This can be best accomplished through the careful selection and organization of appropriate materials of instruction, the judicious use of various methods and procedures, the wise utilization of situations that continually arise in the school, and the careful guidance of pupils.

In order to train for good citizenship, it is important to look to the materials of instruction. The school curriculum must be formulated for the purpose of socialization. Tradition hangs heavily on our schools and it is difficult to reconstruct courses not only in the social studies, but also in English, science, languages, arithmetic, and other subjects. Social values must be sought and taught in all subjects.

In the social studies, especially, a new alignment must be made between the materials of instruction and the social realities with which they deal. Abstract principles must be translated into practical problems in terms of human values. Social attitudes must be developed through the interpretation of life and of the environment. Civic virtues must be cultivated, not through formal abstractions about government, but through a living and realistic curriculum. International idealism and action must be put into effect within the classroom and without. The social studies must accept the chief responsibility for social and civic training, but each subject in the curriculum should make its contributions.

Not only should the materials of instruction offer opportunities for social and civic training, but methods and procedures must be planned carefully toward such an end. A strict adherence to textbooks and to formal recitations must be abandoned; and methods that afford training in leadership, cooperation, and socialization must be substituted. The classroom should be a laboratory for training and equipping pupils to discharge responsibilities. It has been one of the chief aims of this volume to present such methods and procedures, which, when carefully selected and planned to meet the needs of both class and teacher, will play an important part in training good citizens.

One of the criticisms of social and civic training at the present time is that often there is little relation between a pupil's knowledge on the one hand and his habits and behavior on the other. A major aim of education is to train pupils in school life so that they will respond properly to situations outside the school and in their adult life. The activities of school life are important in themselves, but they are more significant when they become habits of thought and action that endure outside the school and after school days are over. In the training for good citizenship, different aspects of education have been emphasized. Knowledge, attitudes, and actual experiences have received varying degrees of stress. All are important, however, in producing citizens of the highest type. Knowledge is essential as a basis of right action. A pupil cannot be held responsible if he does not know the difference between right and wrong. But knowledge is not enough. It is possible that a pupil may well understand the complex world in which he lives and yet have an incorrect attitude toward it. An understanding of community organization and problems does not

insure a respect for law and order. Correct attitudes and high ideals are also essential.

Even right attitudes and high ideals do not necessarily result in right action. A person may have a high regard for the abstract virtue of honesty and yet violate it in certain instances when it is to his advantage. One may have a deep sympathy with the suffering hero on the screen and yet inflict torture upon his fellow men. Right action must be learned through many experiences. The school must therefore provide the experiences that will tend to develop the habits of right action.

In the past, the school has been slow to take advantage of the opportunities for training in social and civic responsibilities. Pupils have been regarded as too immature to assume responsibility through new experiences. The tendency has been to dictate to pupils their mode of action within the jurisdiction of the school and to pay little attention to the behavior of pupils when the school is not affected. If pupils have been found guilty of violating any rules or regulations, the attitude has been either to threaten or to coax them to better behavior, instead of placing the responsibility directly upon them. For example, complaints were made to a superintendent that pupils had trampled over lawns and destroyed fences on property near the school. As usual, at an assembly, the principal stood before the school and pleaded with them for better behavior and finally concluded by threatening punishment if it should happen again. The results of such a procedure are generally unsatisfactory. How much better it would be if, in such a situation, conferences were held with various groups and a discussion of civic pride entered into! A committee of pupils could be appointed, as a result of the discussion, to make a survey of the school community, in order to investigate violations of the ideal of civic pride. Another committee could be chosen to confer with the owners whose property had been damaged. Still other committees could devise means for securing more regard for the rights of others. This might well result in the cooperation of the pupils and the property owners in placing small signs, made in the school, on the lawn. Posters could also be made and placed within the school, emphasizing aspects of civic pride. Such procedures as these are bound to aid in building up attitudes of civic responsibility.

In another school, much difficulty was encountered from time to time in keeping the school grounds free from paper, especially at lunch time. Scoldings during assemblies and instruction in civics classes failed to solve the problem. The method just suggested was finally tried, the responsibility being thrown directly upon the pupils. It is significant that one of the chief offenders, who had been placed on one of the committees, suggested that the number of receptacles for waste paper be increased and

that the committee decide upon the most convenient locations for them. The problem was thus solved at that school.

The school offers unlimited opportunities for training in citizenship. It can well be compared with a state, with the pupils as citizens possessing certain rights, duties, privileges, and obligations. Schools should be organized to this end, and pupils encouraged to aid in the shaping of school ideals and practices.

Student self-government can be made a valuable aid in training for citizenship. It is true that, since organized society provides education, the school has to be governed by the authorized representatives of society. General policies and courses of study have to be formulated before pupils reach school. They cannot plan the organization and management of a school any more than they can plan the organization and management of their own homes. But within certain limits, there are opportunities for student government. In the hands of a good teacher or adviser who has sufficient common sense to make it work satisfactorily, student government is commendable; for it encourages the development of habits of honesty, obedience to law, and cooperation, and also places responsibility upon the pupils. The amount of responsibility that should be placed upon them in student government will vary for different schools. The ideal is to place as much responsibility upon pupils as they are capable of assuming.

The school can provide the experiences necessary to build up ideals and habits of good citizenship in many other ways. The home room, the assembly program, class organization, class activities, and extracurricular activities—all are full of possibilities to develop habits that will result in right action. Yet teachers often neglect such opportunities. They tend to do all the planning and to take most of the responsibilities. This is often due to the fact that the competitive idea is carried to an extreme. For instance, in order that the team may win, the debating club follows implicitly the directions of the teacher or coach, who gives little opportunity for social development. The educative advantages of dramatics are likewise frequently lost in the desire to produce a masterpiece. Qualities of good citizenship can be created in the school, and the practices of civic virtues and a world outlook must be cultivated there. Social and civic progress can come only through education and training. It is the duty of the school to provide such training.

The Problem of Integration

A part of the problem of social and civic training is that of the integrating function of the secondary school. In any order of society, two forces are constantly at work which together determine the form of the social

organization—integration and differentiation. The former can be seen in the unity of thought, ideals, standards, and action often exhibited by the social group. The latter is evidenced in the differences among individuals and the differentiated needs of modern society. The two forces should be considered as supplemental rather than conflicting. The increasing complexity of life and the heterogeneity of population in our country emphasize the importance and the difficulty of social integration.

If the school is to function efficiently, recognition must be given to the need for training that will aid in integration, as well as for training that will allow for individual differences among the pupils and the differentiated needs of society. Attention must be given to the development of a certain amount of like-mindedness and unity of thought, as well as certain motives and ideals essential for social solidarity. Many new concepts, however, have arisen which have resulted in a departure from the older view of education, by which the school was regarded solely as a carrier of culture from one generation to another, to the later and more dynamic views of education.

A number of educators, under the leadership of John Dewey and others, emphasize faith in the power of intelligence by educating the masses to solve mankind's increasing problems. This group, with unswerving faith in the common man, believes that the rising generation can be trained to think for itself. The school, being a part of society in which nothing is fixed and final, must also be dynamic and subject to change. According to Kilpatrick, "The future of civilization is uncertain. It rests with those who are able to think, and that is our task." Again he states: "A better education (which is the only progressive education we care for) must first put thinking—that is to say—intelligent conscious action in control, with habit always subordinate thereto."¹

Education through Indoctrination

There are educators, who, although they agree with many principles of the Dewey school, especially in regard to the ideal of the "democratic way of life," state that although pupils are capable of much training in thinking, we cannot ignore rooted ideas and beliefs as the foundation of personal and social action. They hold that all education contains a large element of imposition and that such is present in all cultures. Unwittingly and unplanned, ideals and habits are inculcated in all groups. They therefore suggest that since the imposition of ideas, beliefs, attitudes, and habits is natural and inevitable, indoctrination should be consciously planned to meet the ideals and aims of society, and especially to bring about a new

¹ W. H. KILPATRICK, "A Theory of Progressive Education to Fit the Times," *Progressive Education*, 8 (April, 1931), pp. 288, 292.

social order through a "more just and noble vision of future America."

Although the movement which undertook definite steps in indoctrination began about thirty-five years ago, it has been stimulated in the United States partly by the activities of European nations in this respect. Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany consciously planned their educational programs to build up new social orders in accord with the aims of the dominant groups in those countries. Soviet Russia, likewise, has developed definite plans. In our own country, the adherents of indoctrination hold that, through this method, a new and better democratic society can be shaped.

Educators belonging to the so-called "progressive" school have recently questioned the wisdom of indoctrinating young people in any way whatever. They maintain that the chief purpose of education is to train pupils to think and reason, in order that they may approach problems with open minds and reach conclusions on the basis of evidence alone. They do not believe that young citizens should be required to accept uncritically the traditions and viewpoints that we have inherited, even if those have been tested and proved in the past. Instead, they advocate training pupils to think, so that they may decide what and what not to accept. The two ideas are opposed to each other, and therefore a careful consideration of the question is essential.

As with many words that have been drawn into the arena of educational controversy, the word "indoctrination" has been loosely used and has therefore caused much confused thinking. Indoctrination means the attempt to influence the minds of others through propaganda, the stimulation of the emotions, or the appeal to self-interest, in order to secure the blind and uncritical acceptance of certain ideas. Some educators have applied the word in a very broad sense, to include all the influences of the teacher in his relations with his pupils. Others limit it to political and economic ideas and questions. It is essential to note that there are varying degrees of indoctrination.

The question as to whether teachers should indoctrinate their pupils or not is a serious one, especially for the teacher of the social studies. This is true because other subjects in the curriculum do not present so many opportunities for indoctrination as the social studies. Foreign languages, mathematics, chemistry, and botany, for example, are comparatively free from the conflict that has been waged over the question.

The ideal of shaping education to bring in a new social order is an attractive one. There is much opposition, however, to the suggestion that this may be achieved through indoctrination. Those in opposition to the indoctrinating of pupils state that the features of a new society would first have to be outlined and that, since no body of historic laws exists to sug-

gest a future form of society, this is impossible; that the indoctrination of pupils with certain solutions to problems of the present will not prepare them for life twenty or thirty years hence; that although the trend of present society is collectivistic, no one can tell how fast society is traveling in that direction and whether or not other factors will enter in to change the trend; and that under present conditions, indoctrination for a new social order could be accomplished only by the organization of educators into militant groups, since the forceful pursuit of the common good is at variance in a thousand ways with vested interests, dominant groups, privileged classes, and confused sentiments. It has also been pointed out that, if every classroom teacher attempted to impose his own pet ideas upon pupils, the result would be educational anarchy; that if teachers should organize to seek agreement on certain doctrines and important issues, the result would be futile, as evidenced in conferences of economists, educators, and others upon outstanding questions; and that the discussion of reconstructing society through indoctrination can be little more than academic debate. This brings us to an important problem of indoctrination—the teaching of controversial issues in the schools.

Those who advocate indoctrination would provide the answers to the various difficult problems of the present in order to create a new society. Other groups object to this method. One group of educators declares that the schools should not become involved in controversial current affairs but should adapt themselves to conditions after social changes have been made. Another group states that the dominating class in any society controls its educational system and that individual teachers have little to do with shaping the curricular policy of the schools. Still another group asserts that our civilization cannot make much progress unless pupils are taught to understand the real economic, political, and social problems of modern life through frank discussion in the classroom. Thus there is a wide range of ideas concerning the teaching of controversial subjects.

If we are to achieve the aims of education as brought out in this volume, the critical factor must play an important role in the program of education to fit the needs of the present. Problems that are really controversial and upon which there is a widespread difference of opinion must be treated with the greatest endeavor to be fair to all sides in the issue. There must be no deliberate suppression of facts or distortion of information, to support any point of view. The aim must be to present facts as they really are. The teacher cannot provide final answers for questions over which sincere and intelligent men have honest differences of opinion. He can express his own ideas but should be open-minded and unbiased. Pupils must not take action on controversial issues, but they should develop a vital interest in the problems of the day and be informed clearly

and impartially as to the real meaning of them. Those who advocate indoctrination, of course, go much further and state that pupils should be indoctrinated with a vision of a new order, as well as with solutions to present ills and problems. This can be carried too far; for society is constantly changing, and no one can prophesy the form that society will assume in the future or the needs of tomorrow. The schools, however, can and must take a part in improving conditions as they exist today. This can be accomplished by training pupils to be critical in their reading, to have open minds on social questions, and to draw conclusions from available facts.

Conviction on troublesome issues and questions must come as a result of analysis, judgment, and experience. Teachers must be loyal to the ideals of tolerance, truth, justice, and honesty. They should emphasize, in their teaching, attitudes, ideals, intellectual habits, and other qualities that will aid to bring about an educated citizenry in a great democracy. A few educators have suggested that the teaching of ideals—even those ideals upon which there is general agreement—is a form of indoctrination. From this viewpoint, we are being indoctrinated throughout our lives. The important question is the degree of indoctrination. If it means going to the extremes of Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany or present-day Soviet Russia, it is to be condemned. On the other hand, a social and civic training that is in accord with democratic ideals—call it what we may—is not only desirable but essential if our schools are to have any part in training citizens who will build a nobler society, freer from faults and defects than the present one.

Propaganda and Social and Civic Education

Dangers beset social and civic training through propaganda. Many definitions of the term have been formulated. The Institute for Propaganda Analysis defined it as "the expression of opinion or action by individuals or groups deliberately designed to influence opinions or actions of other individuals or groups with reference to predetermined ends." A simpler definition is: "Propaganda is organized persuasion."² A teacher concerned with social objectives should become well acquainted with the subject if he wishes to prepare his pupils for intelligent living in a democracy.

Not all propaganda is bad. Labor organizations, societies for the promotion of health education, churches, peace groups, and even government often try to shape public opinion in favor of certain points of view, the objectives of which conform to the highest purposes of democracy. Pupils,

² WILLIAM W. BIDDLE, "The Institute for Propaganda Analysis," *Frontiers of Democracy*, 6 (Mar. 15, 1940), p. 182.

however, should be taught to recognize any propaganda, whether good or bad, and to evaluate it critically.

It should be noted that both the propagandist and the educator are interested in giving information. The educator is chiefly interested in how people think; the propagandist is concerned with what they think. The educator is willing to have his ideas criticized and scrutinized; the propagandist wishes his ideas to be accepted without any criticism. The educator seeks an open mind; the propagandist admires a closed mind. The educator believes in learning by examining the facts; the propagandist believes in learning by the passive acceptance of facts. The educator must respect personality; the propagandist has no reason for respecting personality. The educator must be entirely willing to submit his ideas for critical analysis; the propagandist tries to hide the real motives underlying what he is trying to present.

Before propaganda can be understood, it is necessary to know the techniques that have been used for ages. What has happened in recent time is that they have been made more effective. Probably the best work in exposing the ways of propaganda has been done by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis. This organization has shown in detail seven devices for such ends. The list is as follows, with brief comments on each.³

1. *Name Calling*. By this device the propagandist tries to confuse thought rather than to clarify it. He gives a person or an idea a label that will prove objectionable. If the term "Communist" or "Fascist" can be attached as a label, the unpopularity associated with the name condemns the individual without further consideration.

2. *Glittering Generalities*. The purpose of the propagandist when using this technique is to bring about the acceptance of an idea without criticism by associating it with some universally accepted symbol. Few question the idea of democracy, patriotism, and Americanism; but it is sometimes very difficult to determine what these and other accepted terms mean to each individual. In fact, many of them mean different things to different people. Americans all believe in democracy, and thus the propagandist has won his point if he can sell his idea by saying that it is democratic. By doing this, he has prevented a critical examination of his idea, which may be undemocratic, even though he has advanced it in the name of democracy.

3. *Transfer*. When using this device, the propagandist attempts to sell his idea by assuming the prestige or authority of something that is highly

³ The fullest explanation of these devices appears in Institute for Propaganda Analysis, "How to Detect Propaganda," *Propaganda Analysis*, 1, No. 2 (November, 1937), pp. 1-4.

regarded. It may be that he attempts to use the authority of the church by availing himself of its symbolism; perhaps the picture of a good Puritan or some other symbol on a package of goods is used to sell the product. In each case, the purpose is the same, to disarm criticism by masquerading under the guise of something widely respected.

4. *Testimonial*. This is one of the most easily recognized of the propaganda techniques. Here the statement of someone who is thoroughly respected or thoroughly hated is used to sell or to condemn an idea, person, or program. If a noted motion-picture star states that she uses a certain cosmetic, this fact is supposed to sell the article to many women, even though *Consumer's Research* may find it wanting in many essentials. The testimony of a well-beloved baseball player is designed to make children like their breakfast food.

5. *Plain Folks*. When using this technique, the propagandist tries to win the confidence of his readers or hearers by convincing them that his ideas are good because they are of the people. Politicians at election time use this method of winning public confidence without having to submit their views for criticism. A candidate is frequently presented as having begun as a poor boy, because this is considered a vote getter. A picture of a group gathered around a cottage organ singing old-time favorites may be used to sell a popular brand of whisky.

6. *Card Stacking*. This includes the suppression, the distortion, and the fabrication of facts. Anyone who tried to follow European news during the First or the Second World War realizes the importance of this technique. The censored dispatches from the European capitals were mostly distortions, partial reports, or pure fabrications. Newspapers in countries where there is no censorship are frequently guilty of this method when they present distorted views of policies that they opposed. A favorite device is to present a misleading account of some event on the first page with sensational headlines, then a few days later to present a retraction of this account in small print on one of the less prominent pages.

7. *Band Wagon*. When using this device, the propagandist tries to work on the human desire to be on the winning side by giving the impression that everyone is already supporting his program. This method may take the form of a parade with tens of thousands in the line of march, a claim by a campaign manager that his party is winning the election by an overwhelming majority, or simply a statement to the effect that everyone accepts this particular point of view.

The chief agencies of propaganda are: the newspaper, the radio, the motion picture, and—most recent—television. All are controlled by certain groups and factors. They exert pressure in shaping public opinion. Of course, these agencies often attempt to be fair to minority groups

and to unpopular views. Yet the fact remains that certain minority groups do not have the means or the resources to present their points of view. It is true that programs have been taken off the air because they displeased powerful interests. Some things, such as the criticism of advertising or the advocacy of birth control, must never be mentioned over the radio. Occasionally, a certain type of motion picture cannot be produced if it offends this or that group.

It is not the purpose of this book to go into a detailed discussion of the problem. We do emphasize that citizens in a democracy must be able to recognize propaganda and be able to determine whether or not it is in line with their own best interests and with the best interests of the society in which they live. The teacher, then, should be thoroughly familiar with the materials used by the propagandist and with his methods. He should so train his pupils that they may evaluate and accept that which will improve democracy.

Achieving the Purposes of Education

Throughout this volume, emphasis has been placed on the education of the individual in regard to finding his place in a democratic society, as well as on the creation of a better world in which to live. Educators have long recognized the problem of improving the individual and society. Modern objectives present a challenge. The chief problem confronting the schools today is how to achieve the main objectives of education. The schools have done much in the past; yet in many respects, they have fallen short. Many plans have been evolved and put into practice to bring the work of education into harmony with its accepted aims. Unfortunately, quite frequently the proponents of many plans and methods have forgotten the true spirit of experimentation. Ideas have often been put into practice on the assumption that they were panaceas for school problems. The approach must be a different one. Educators must continually strive to discover the weaknesses in the educational program. Then the spirit of research and experimentation must be used to overcome these weaknesses. The problems must be faced with no preconceived notions, but with an open mind. When efforts result in error, they must be admitted and the work resumed to discover correct solutions.

Teachers must meet the challenge of the crisis through which the world is passing with determination, thoughtful planning, and action. They must make young Americans alert to the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, as well as to the privileges and opportunities of American life. There must be a clear understanding of the nature, goals, and functioning of democracy. Most important, the work of the school must be

directed toward providing opportunities for democratic living. Youth must be educated for life among a free and independent people.

The United States and World Leadership

Much has been written and said about the new Atomic Age in which we live. As in other periods of crisis in world history, such as the Ice Age or the disintegration of the Roman Empire, the citizens of this distressed planet face a period of readjustment if they are going to survive. The two atomic bombs dropped over Japan toward the end of the Second World War did more than blot out human lives and habitations on a scale never before imagined. They brought fear to individuals and nations alike. They symbolized in a most dramatic fashion the broad gap between man's scientific resourcefulness and his spiritual and moral values.

As one of the great nations of the world, the United States must contribute a full share of leadership in solving world problems. International cooperation among all nations in political, social, and economic fields is necessary for survival. Citizens of the United States, therefore, must be trained in their duties and responsibilities as citizens of the world. The hope for a peaceful and prosperous world can be found only in a broad program of education that has for its foundation good will, justice, and truth.

A significant step in the direction of world cooperation through education was taken in the establishment of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), affiliated with the United Nations through its Economic and Social Council. Its constitution sets forth its purposes, which center in the aim of eliminating suspicion and misunderstanding among all peoples by means of education. Through the media of the school, the press, the radio, television, and motion pictures, much can be achieved. Through international conferences and agreements, the sharing of knowledge by scholars and scientists, and the exchange of teachers and students among the different countries, better international relationships will result. UNESCO can become a powerful instrument for peace and good will among the nations of the world. Other agencies, too, are contributing toward this end, as for example, the Fulbright scholarships and several foundations.

While the United States must contribute its full share of leadership, it must not seek to impose democracy—our way of life—on any people. It would be unwise to do so. Democracy, which has slowly developed through the struggles of man toward enlightened altruism, can be neither bestowed nor imposed. It must grow. We must show the rest of the world that democracy is the ultimate goal of man. It is therefore essential that we solve our own domestic problems in an honest and intelligent manner.

Through a real and vital democracy we can inspire in all peoples a feeling of a common destiny. Education must wipe out suspicion and distrust; it must build up understanding and cooperation. In this way, a better world will evolve, in which liberty, security, and justice will prevail.

Summary

American education has been criticized for overemphasizing the development of personal efficiency, which has resulted in selfish individualism. Carefully worked out plans of social and civic training in our schools are essential to provide for the needs and well-being of a democratic society. There are many agencies for the social and civic training of our youth, but the school is the most important. The entire school program and especially the social studies must contribute to this end. Such training must be a continuous process throughout school life and can be accomplished through the materials of instruction, through methods and procedures, through the various situations that arise, through guidance of pupils, and by providing opportunities for training in citizenship.

The idea of the integrating function of education has resulted in dynamic views of the purpose of education. The "progressive school" has faith in the power of intelligence by educating the masses to solve our problems. On the other hand, there are educators who believe that a new social order can be brought about by indoctrination. Much controversy has been waged around this problem. The word "indoctrination" itself has been loosely used and, as a result, has caused much confused thinking. It is essential to note that there are varying degrees of indoctrination and that methods of European dictators cannot be tolerated in a democracy. Controversial issues must be treated fairly and without bias. They have a place in the schools; for if our aims are to be achieved, the critical factor must play an important part.

Teachers must train pupils to recognize and evaluate the materials and methods of propaganda. They must emphasize attitudes, ideals, and other qualities, in order that the school may contribute to the making of citizens who will build a nobler order of society. The chief purposes of education are to make young Americans alert to the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, as well as to their privileges and opportunities.

In this Atomic Age, the United States must contribute its full share of leadership in developing international cooperation and good will among all nations. It must not seek to impose democracy upon any people but must demonstrate to the rest of the world that democracy is a superior way of life. Education must wipe out suspicion and distrust. The tasks imposed on the schools are difficult ones. But the schools must undertake them if they are to function in accord with the American way of life.

Questions

1. To what extent is it the duty of the school to provide efficient training in citizenship?
2. List the institutions and agencies that play a part directly or indirectly in social and civic education.
3. Discuss the means that can be utilized in working out a complete program of social and civic training in the school.
4. Why are the social studies so important in training for citizenship?
5. Give the arguments for and against student self-government. What is your stand on this issue?
6. What is meant by the integrating function of education?
7. Compare and contrast the chief views of the "progressive school" with those of educators who believe in indoctrination.
8. What are the arguments for and against indoctrination?
9. To what degree should controversial questions find a place in the classroom?
10. What attitude should the teacher of the social studies take on controversial subjects?
11. Search several newspapers or magazines for examples of the various devices of the propagandist. Classify them according to the seven devices named in this chapter.
12. Why should the United States contribute a full share of leadership in solving world problems?
13. What can American schools do to promote better international relationships? Show the importance of the social studies in this respect.
14. Outline the plans undertaken by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

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LIST OF VISUAL MATERIALS

The visual materials listed below and on the following pages can be used to supplement the material in this book. We recommend, however, that each film be reviewed before using in order to determine its suitability for a particular group.

Both motion pictures and filmstrips are included in this list of visual materials, and the character of each one is indicated by the self-explanatory abbreviations "MP" and "FS." Immediately following this identification is the name of the producer; and if the distributor is different from the producer, the name of the distributor follows the name of the producer. The abbreviations which are used are identified in the list of producers and distributors (with their addresses) at the end of the bibliography. In most instances, the films listed in this bibliography can be borrowed or rented from local or state 16-mm. film libraries. Unless otherwise indicated, the motion pictures are 16-mm. sound films.

Film users who wish a complete bibliography of films dealing with teacher education, including social studies, should obtain *Selected Films for Teacher Education* published by Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. Moreover, teachers and prospective teachers who wish information on specific films available for use in teaching history, geography, and other social studies subjects should examine *Educational Film Guide*, a catalog of some 10,000 films published by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York. The *Guide*, a standard reference book, is available in most college and public libraries.

Accent on Learning (MP, OSU, 24 min). Shows that the good teacher uses a variety of techniques and materials to meet the needs of students and that the value of teaching "tools" is proportionate to the knowledge, imagination, and skill with which they are used by the individual teacher.

Broader Concept of Method. Part 1: Developing Pupil Interest (MP, McGraw, 13 min). Contrasts a conventional, teacher-dominated lesson and an informal class with teachers and students planning and working together. (Correlated filmstrip, same title, 33 frames, also available.)

Broader Concept of Method. Part 2: Teacher and Pupil Planning and Working Together (MP, McGraw, 19 min). Students learning to work together in class projects with the help and guidance of the teacher. (Correlated filmstrip, same title, 37 frames, also available.)

Community Resources in Teaching (MP, Iowa U, 20 min). Shows the use of the community resources as a student "laboratory" and the value of using members of the community as lecturers or demonstrators in the classroom.

Discussion in Democracy (MP, Coronet, 10 min). A group of students learn the relationship of organized discussion to a democratic society. Primarily for high-school classes but also useful in teacher training.

Discussion of the Social Sciences (MP, EBF, 22 min). Record of an unrehearsed discussion in a first-year college class in social science. Illustrates discussion as a method of teaching and points up the role of the instructor as a guide.

Experimental Studies in Social Climates of Groups (MP, Iowa U, 31 min). Contrasts the social climates in three types of situations in a boys' club—democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire.

Feltboard in Teaching (MP, Wayne U, 9 min). Suggests ways in which teachers can use the feltboard or flannelgraph.

Field Trip (MP, Va Dept Ed, 10 min). Shows basic steps involved in using a field trip as a part of the instructional program; suggests some of the field-trip opportunities which exist in Virginia.

Film Tactics (MP, USN/UWF, 22 min). Right and wrong ways of using instructional films illustrated through imaginative scenes of the mental impressions of students during different types of film utilization.

Giving a Shop Demonstration (MP, USN/UWF, 18 min). Produced for the U.S. Navy to show some techniques in teaching; basic ideas on presentation contained in this film should be helpful to all teachers.

Global Concept in Maps (MP, Coronet, 10 min). Designed primarily for pupils, this film should be useful in pointing out to teachers how object and graphic materials can be used effectively in the presentation of difficult map concepts.

How to Make Handmade Lantern Slides (MP, Ind U, 22 min). Shows step-by-step process for making several types of lantern slides; suggests the almost unlimited possibilities which these materials have for improving learning.

Importance of Goals (MP, McGraw, 19 min). This film explores the principle that all learning is a process of attaining basic, meaningful goals; the proper aims and objectives for teacher and pupil can spell the difference between interested students and bored, indifferent ones. (Correlated filmstrip, same title, also available.)

Language of Graphs (MP, Coronet, 15 min). Purpose of the film is to help students understand graphs and their many uses; it should also suggest to teachers the use of practical school situations through which students can acquire basic skills and knowledges.

Learning a New Way (MP, Moffilm, 11 min). A high-school senior's own film of his social-studies class project; idea of cooperative planning in the learning process is featured.

Learning Democracy through School-Community Projects (MP, Mich U/Locke, 22 min). How the public schools of Michigan provide opportunities for students to experience democracy by participating in school and community projects, curricular innovations, extracurricular activities, and methods of instruction.

Learning from Class Discussion (MP, Coronet, 10 min). Presents a number of points necessary to a worth-while discussion.

Learning through Cooperative Planning (MP, TC, 18 min). Enumerates the seven basic skills essential in a project involving cooperative planning. Illustrates the points by showing an extracurricular project backed by the student council at Parkview School, New York.

Let's Look at Maps (MP, Va Dept Ed, 10 min). Demonstrates that maps are symbolic representations of reality; gives teachers a better understanding of how ability to read and interpret maps can be developed with their pupils.

Maintaining Classroom Discipline (MP, McGraw, 15 min). Two methods of discipline and their results in terms of classroom behavior and of student learning.

Motivating the Class (MP, McGraw, 19 min). Student teacher of mathematics learns that adequate motivation is basic to all good teaching; techniques and psychological principles employed apply in any area of the school curriculum. (Correlated filmstrip, same title, also available.)

Near Home (MP, BIS, 25 min). English school children gathering first-hand information about their community; illustrates the effectiveness of activity projects in education.

Our Teacher, Mary Dean (MP, Frith, 22 min). Shows many school situations, many teaching methods, and portrays Mary's life outside of school.

Principles of the Art and Science of Teaching (MP, Iowa U, 55 min). Illustrates through activities of a high-school class in American history three principles of good teaching: (1) formulation of objectives; (2) selection of content and activities; (3) adaptation of method.

Problems of Pupil Adjustment: The Drop-out (MP, McGraw, 20 min). Characteristics of a high-school program which cause students to leave school as soon as possible.

Problems of Pupil Adjustment: The Stay-in (MP, McGraw, 19 min). How "drop-outs" can be reduced when individual needs are met in a school program that stresses learning in terms of adjustment to everyday living.

The Safest Way (MP, AAA, 18 min). Illustrates, through an elementary class project in safety education, basic principles of good teaching, the uses of audio-visual methods, and democracy in the classroom.

Sight and Sound (MP, Can NFB, 11 min). Shows the use of audio-visual aids—films, filmstrips, and radio broadcasts—and stresses their value in education.

Teacher as Observer and Guide (MP, TC, 22 min). Shows several school activities which contribute to pupil development and the role of the teacher in guiding and directing this development.

Teachers for Tomorrow (MP, Wis U, 22 min). Based on teacher-education program of University of Wisconsin, shows how teachers are chosen and prepared for a teaching career.

The Teaching Materials Center (MP, Va Dept Ed, 12 min). Shows the materials and resources available from a good teaching materials center and how this helps to develop meaningful learning in the classroom.

U.S. Community and Its Citizens (MP, UWF, 20 min). Shows a class engaged in a study of their community; shows factors that contribute toward formation and growth of a community; shows interdependencies existing between various peoples and groups in a community.

Using the Classroom Film (MP, EBF, 20 min). Shows the basic techniques of effectively using an educational sound motion picture, as illustrated in a seventh-grade social-studies class.

We Plan Together (MP, TC, 21 min). A companion film to *Learning through Co-operative Planning*, depicts the experiences of an eleventh-grade group in planning cooperatively their class work.

Wilson Dam School (MP, TVA, 21 min). Illustrates activity projects as carried out in the daily activities and wide use of instructional materials in the elementary school at Wilson Dam, Alabama.

Directory of Sources

- AAA—American Automobile Association, 17th and Pennsylvania Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.
- BIS—British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.
- Can NFB—National Film Board of Canada, 1270 Ave. of the Americas, New York 20.
- Coronet—Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.
- EBF—Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.
- Frith—Frith Films, 1816 N. Highland, Hollywood, Calif.
- Ind U—Indiana University, Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington.
- Iowa U—State University of Iowa, Iowa City.
- Locke—Locke Films, Inc., 120 W. Lovell St., Kalamazoo, Mich.
- McGraw—McGraw-Hill Book Co., Text-Film Dept., 330 W. 42d St., New York 18.
- Mich U—University of Michigan, School of Education, Ann Arbor. (Film distributed by Locke Films.)
- Moffilm—Moffilm (Maurice P. Moffatt), State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N.J.
- OSU—Ohio State University, Columbus.
- TC—Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
- TVA—Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tenn.
- Va Dept Ed—Virginia State Department of Education, Richmond.
- USN—U.S. Department of the Navy, Washington 25. (Films sold under government contract by United World Films, Inc.)
- UWF—United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.
- Wayne U—Wayne University, Audio-Visual Materials, 5272 Second Blvd., Detroit 1.
- Wis U—University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Visual Instruction, Madison.

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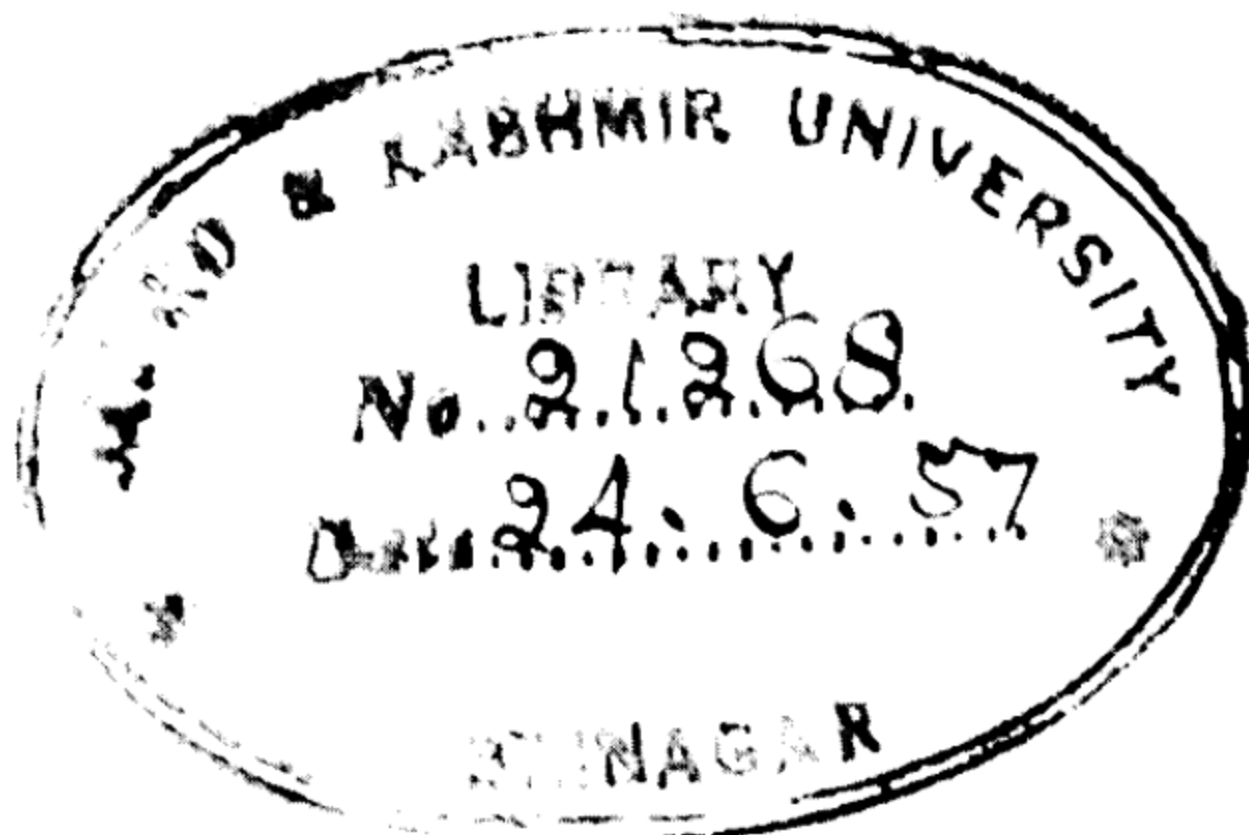
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